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MAKING A HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAMME

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The importance of a good school programme cannot be overestimated. It is to the school what the timetable is to the railroad, and upon it largely depends not alone the economical management of the institution, but its educational efficiency as well.

With the growth of the high-school curriculum has of necessity come increased complexity in the school programme. As long as all pupils took the same studies the programme was comparatively simple, but as the number of studies multiplied it became impossible for any pupil to take them all, and a choice of a part of them became a necessity. At first certain courses, such as the commercial course, the classical course, etc., were arranged, and a pupil selecting one or the other of these courses was expected to follow it without deviation to the end. This resulted in the division of the school into a number of groups, but the members of each group pursued exactly the same studies. This change produced some change in the school programme, but it was still comparatively simple.

It was found that the fixed courses of study did not adequately meet the varied needs of the pupils, needs which developed hand in hand with changes in our social and industrial life. Fixed courses of study also made it almost impossible for a pupil to change from one course to another without beginning

over again. The pupil, for instance, who had discovered himself after entering the high school and desired to change his work could not readily do so.

The next step in advance was to offer certain elective studies within the course. The pupil still chose a given course of study, but in the later years of the course was offered a choice of work from other courses of study. A recent examination of courses of study in many high schools seems to show that most of the high schools of this country are now at this stage of development, i. e., they offer a number of courses of study with restricted election in the latter years of the course.

In 1901 the city of Boston (one of whose high schools is used for illustrative purposes in this paper) went one step farther, threw down all the barriers offered by courses of study, and, with the exception of a few studies which were required of all pupils, put all the rest into one elective group and offered free election to all pupils.

The accompanying elective sheet shows how great freedom of choice is now allowed in this city.

It will be noticed that English, physical training or military drill, choral practice, and hygiene are required subjects, but all others are elective. Certain studies cannot be elected until certain years, and there are certain broad requirements for a diploma, designed to prevent unwise choice of work by pupils. Otherwise pupils are free to choose as they please. The pupil desiring a commercial course chooses from the list commercial subjects, and the pupil fitting for college or technical school chooses the studies that he needs. Should a pupil develop new ambitions, he is at liberty at once to choose his work accordingly.

This change was a most radical one, and there were found and still can be found teachers who believe that it was a great mistake; that pupils entering the high school are too young to choose for themselves; that they choose unwisely and follow as a rule "lines of least resistance," and that fixed courses of study or courses with limited election yielded better results. I have never seen statistical information which confirmed these opinions. It would be a fruitful field for investigation to gather

NAME.....(NEXT YEAR'S) CLASS ROOM.....COURSE.....

PRESCRIBED STUDIES					ELECTIVE STUDIES				
Year—First Elective	Length of Course in Years	Study	Year of Study	Points	Year—First Elective	Length of Course in Years	Study	Year of Study	Points
I	4	English			I	4	History		
I	4	Physical Training (girls)			3	I	Civil Government		
I	4	Military Drill (boys)			I	4	Latin		
I	4	Choral Practice			I	4	French		
I	3	Hygiene			I	4	German		
					2	3	Greek		
					I	2	Algebra		
					2	3	Geometry		
					I	I	Botany		
					2	I	Zoölogy		
					3	I	Physiology		
					2	2	Physics		
					3	2	Chemistry		
					I	2	Book-keeping		
					2	3	{ Phonography }		
					2	I	{ Typewriting }		
							Commercial Geog-raphy		
					3	I	Mercantile Law		
					3	I	Economics		
					I	4	Drawing		
					3	2	Music		
					3	I	Household Science and Arts		
		Total Points					Total Points		

A. Every pupil's election of work for the first three years of his course, unless special exception has been made by the headmaster, must include all the prescribed studies, and a sufficient number of elective studies to amount, all told, to not less than nineteen, nor more than twenty-two points each year. In the fourth year all the pupil's work is elective to a total of not less than seventy-six points for the four years.

B. A diploma is awarded to pupils who have won seventy-six points, which must include: (1) six points in physical training or military drill, (2) one point in hygiene, (3) three points in choral practice, (4) at least thirteen points in English, (5) at least seven points in some foreign language or in phonography and typewriting, (6) at least four points in mathematics or book-keeping, (7) at least three points in history, (8) at least three points in science.

I approve of my child's selection of the above studies for the school year 19... to 19...

Parent's Signature _____

statistics of this kind from schools of varying degrees of freedom in election. We are all of us prone to resist innovations, and to value unduly practices with which we have long been familiar. Because of these mental attitudes, abuses in a new order of things loom large, so large as often to hide advantages. Personally I have witnessed a steady growth in judgment by pupils in the choice of their work, and such abuses as I have seen have been largely due either to transition from the old to the new, or to faults of administration, a failure properly to inform and direct pupils in their choice of work.

The introduction of electives at once very greatly increased the difficulty of making the school programme. Pupils must no longer be provided for in groups, but as individuals, and there were almost as many differences in elections as there were pupils.

The making of school programmes has never received in educational discussions the attention which it merits, probably because of its very great complexity. In every high school there are a host of considerations purely of a local nature that enter into the making of its programme. The requirements of the course of study, the personal characteristics of the teacher, and his preparation to teach, the size, situation, and number of available schoolrooms, the coming and going of special teachers, etc., etc., are all considerations which enter into the making of the school programme, and yet are not alike in any two high schools. There are, however, certain fundamental considerations that underlie all programme making, which can be set forth and which are valuable. It is proposed in this paper to bring out some of these considerations by treating in detail the making of the programme of a particular school, but the principles involved have been successfully applied in a variety of other high schools, in small as well as large schools, in schools with restricted, and schools with unlimited elections.

THE PROBLEM

The Roxbury High School, Roxbury District, Boston, is a mixed school of about 850 pupils, 400 of them in the entering class. The girls outnumber the boys about three to one. There

is unrestricted election of studies. Pupils can and do reach back and take first-, second-, or third-year studies in every subsequent year. Some studies have recitations but once a week, others two, three, four, and five times per week. Two hours in the week are devoted to military drill by all the boys; one hour to choral practice by the pupils of the entering class, another hour by pupils of the three upper classes. During one hour, known as the "office hour," the entire school is free. Science subjects and drawing require one or more double periods for laboratory work. The programme presents unusual difficulties, as much so perhaps as will be found in any mixed high school anywhere. The problem is to so arrange the programme of studies as to allow every pupil to choose what he wishes.

NUMBER OF RECITATION PERIODS PER DAY

One of the first things to be determined in any school programme is the number of recitations per day. The length of the school session in most high schools is five hours. Out of this must be taken about 30 minutes for the noon recess, and at least 10 minutes for opening exercises. This leaves 280 minutes per day for recitations. How shall this time be divided? It is usually divided either into six periods of from 40 to 45 minutes each, or into five of 50 or more minutes each. School regulations usually require that every pupil shall carry work which employs on the average about twenty periods per week, and the "office hour" employs one more. With five recitation periods per day, twenty-one periods per week will then be employed out of a total of twenty-five. This does not allow a sufficient margin of unemployed time to avoid conflict in the pupil's programme. Especially is this so if for any reason the pupil is obliged to carry extra work, or needs extra periods for laboratory or shop work. Six periods per day, thirty per week, is the more common division of time, and it allows a sufficient number of unemployed periods to give necessary flexibility in the pupil's programme. In the Roxbury High School the school session is extended fifteen minutes so that each recitation period may be exactly 45 minutes long.

RECITATION GROUPS

How shall these periods be utilized for recitations? This is a very important consideration. One of two plans is usually followed: Recitations are either scheduled any time in the week that will avoid conflict, and the programme thus forms what has been aptly called a "mosaic," or the periods of the week are divided into a number of non-conflicting recitation groups, or "blocks" as they are sometimes called.

It is possible where there is restricted election, and pupils' schedules are therefore very much alike, to arrange a programme on the "mosaic" plan without many conflicts, but it will generally be found rigid and inflexible if a pupil chooses a course out of the ordinary, and many a pupil's worthy ambition has been "nipped in the bud" by the inexorable demands of such a programme.

Moreover, such a programme does not possess the quality of permanence. It is so delicately put together that the changes in classes, which of necessity come from year to year, so derange the "mosaic" as to call for a new programme each year, in the making of which the old programme is of very little help.

If, however, the recitation periods of the week are divided into a number of different groups, which are of necessity non-conflicting because they represent different periods of time, recitations may be assigned to different groups with no possibility of conflict; changes from year to year may be provided for by minor changes in the group distribution, and such grouping may be improved upon and perfected as time goes on so as to be well-nigh permanent.

The number of periods in a recitation group will vary according to the requirements of the "Course of Study." In the Roxbury High School the thirty recitation periods of the week are divided into six groups of four periods each, and a seventh group of six periods. Four periods constitute a recitation group because more subjects have four recitations per week than any other number. To the six recitation groups are assigned all or nearly all recitations. The seventh group is used for irregular recita-

tions requiring often special teachers, such as military drill or choral practice, for the "office hour," and for laboratory work or extra recitations. If a subject requires four or less recitations per week it is assigned to one of the six groups. If it requires five recitations per week, or double periods for laboratory work, these are provided for by combining the group with some period in the seventh group.

How shall these six recitation groups be chosen? This is by no means a simple problem. The natural choice would be to have four of the first recitation periods of each day constitute the first group, four of the second the second group, etc., but such a choice means that to some subjects will be assigned all of the first periods of the day, and to others all of the last periods.

It is a well-established fact in pedagogy that there is a great difference in the working efficiency of a pupil in the first and last hours of the day, and that subjects assigned to the last hours are at a distinct disadvantage when compared with those assigned to the early hours. Especially is this noticeable if they happen to be different divisions of the same subject. The selection of the seventh group is largely determined by the peculiarities of the group itself, the coming and going of special teachers, etc. It should therefore be the first chosen, and around it should be arranged the other six groups in such a way as to provide for an equal distribution of early and late periods, and for combination with the seventh group for extra recitations and double laboratory periods. The accompanying blank shows how these groups have been arranged in the Roxbury High School. Other schools would require a different grouping, but the principles involved would apply to all schools.

The number in the lower right-hand corner of each space indicates the group to which the period has been assigned. The periods themselves are designated as first, second, third, etc., period of the day. Group 1 includes the 5th period Monday, the 5th Tuesday, the 2nd Wednesday, and the 1st Friday. Group 2: Tuesday 4, Wednesday 3, Thursday 5, Friday 2; Group 3: Monday 4, Tuesday 2, Wednesday 5, Thursday 3; Group 4: Monday 3, Wednesday 4, Thursday 4, Friday 3; Group 5: Monday 2,

Tuesday 1, Wednesday 6, Friday 5; Group 6: Monday 1, Tuesday 6, Thursday 1 or 2, Friday 6. If you add up the hours of the day for each group you will find that five of them give a total of 14 and one of 13, thus showing a nearly even division of early and late hours of the day.

DAILY PROGRAMME OF.....190.. to 190..
CLASS..... ROOM.....

	9:15-10:00	10:00-10:45	10:45-11:30	11:30-12:15	12:45-1:30	1:30-2:15
Mon.	6	5	4	3	1	7
Tues.	5	3	7	2	1	6
Wed.	Office 7	1	2	4	3	5
Thurs.	7 or 6	6 or 7	3	4	2	7
Fri.	1	2	4	7	5	6

The seventh group includes, Monday 6, Tuesday 3, Wednesday 1, Thursday 1, or 2 and 6, and Friday 4. Monday 6 and Thursday 6 are drill hours; Wednesday 1 the office hour; Thursday 1 the hour for choral practice by the entering class, and Thursday 2 by the three upper classes. Extra recitations are provided for by combining Group 1 with Thursday 1, 2 or 6 of Group 7; Group 2 with Monday 6; Group 3 with Friday 4; Group 4 with Tuesday 3; Group 5 with Thursday 1, 2 or 6; and Group 6 with Wednesday 1. Double laboratory periods are provided for by combining Group 1 with Monday 6 of Group 7; Group 2 with Tuesday 3 or Thursday 6; Group 3 with Tuesday 3; Group 4 with Friday 4; Group 5 with Friday 4, and Group 6 with Thursday 1 or 2. Some of these combinations can be made by girls only, but as our girls outnumber the boys three to one, some divisions are made up wholly of girls. Other combinations

between the six groups are possible and are used in the entering class where the number of classes reciting five times per week is large.

ELECTION OF STUDIES BY PUPILS

The success of the elective system depends upon the wise and careful direction of pupils in their choice of work. Time should be allowed for the teacher to advise with the pupil and fully inform him about the different subjects offered, and parents should be invited to consult with teachers in the matter. Obviously this cannot be done if election is deferred until the beginning of the school year, when there are so many other things to be attended to. Pupils in the three upper classes should elect their work for the ensuing school year not later than June 1.

I know of no reason why, if elections are made in May, both the school programme and the pupils' individual programmes cannot be made out in the summer vacation, and the pupil be given his assignment of classes on the opening day of school so that he may be ready for work the second day. Because they come from many different grammar schools, the entering class had better defer their elections until they enter the high school in September, when they will receive uniform instructions and supervision by high-school teachers. This need not, however, interfere with the making of the school programme during the summer vacation. The size of the entering class is approximately known in June, and by means of data from previous entering classes the number of divisions in each subject may be estimated fairly well. It will be found that the percentage of pupils in entering classes electing each subject varies very little from year to year.

The elective blank used in the Roxbury High School, and given above (see p. 451) has been in successful use for two years. It designates prescribed and elective studies, indicates in the two columns to the left the year when subjects may first be elected and the number of years they may be pursued, and leaves two blank columns to the right, one for the indication of the year of the subject desired and the other for the number of points that it

counts. Under the head of "General Directions" are found the requirements of the course of study as laid down by the school authorities, and at the bottom of the page is a place for the parent's approval of his child's selection of work. The parent's approval should always be obtained. He is the most interested party, and his signature acts to prevent whimsical and unreasonable changes in elections by the pupil in the fall of the year.

TABULATION OF ELECTIVES

The pupil's elective sheets should next be carefully tabulated to ascertain the number electing each subject, and from these tabulations can be computed the number of recitation divisions for the ensuing year. If for no other purpose than for this tabulation, a printed elective blank is desirable. Without it the pupil's electives are in his own hand writing and in no definite order. With it the electives are printed and appear each at a definite place on the blank where they can instantly be recognized in the tabulations and re-tabulations that are necessary before the programme is completed.

DISTRIBUTION OF DIVISIONS AMONG RECITATION GROUPS

After the number of divisions has been determined they must be distributed among the different recitation groups so as to avoid conflict. Upon the skill with which this is done, more than upon any other one element, depends the success of the programme. Care must be taken to avoid conflicts both on the part of the teacher, by not placing in the same group two divisions taught by the same teacher, and on the part of the pupil, by not placing in the same group two divisions desired by the same pupil.

Two directions of general application may be given with reference to this distribution:

First, Avoid as far as possible placing in the same group subjects with but one division, unless the subjects themselves are non-conflicting. Different years of the same subject, e. g., Latin I and II or Algebra I and II, are of themselves non-conflicting and may appear in the same group. Our course of study does not allow pupils in the entering class to elect more than one

foreign language. This makes foreign languages of the same year, e. g., Latin I and French I, or German II and French II, non-conflicting. Some studies are non-conflicting by nature, e. g., the higher courses in Latin or Greek, and the higher courses in commercial branches are rarely chosen by the same pupil and may be placed with little probability of conflict in the same recitation group. Other requirements of the course of study might be cited which would tend to make other studies non-conflicting.

Second, When there is more than one division of a subject give the different divisions the widest possible distribution, i. e., if the number of divisions be less than the number of groups, do not allow two divisions to come in the same recitation group; if the number be more than the number of groups, but not more than twice as many, do not allow over two divisions to come in a group, etc. Such a distribution gives very great flexibility for the assignment of work both to teacher and to pupil. It may be desirable before the grouping is finally settled to consult the elective sheets of pupils in the highest class, because in the last year of the course there are so many subjects with single divisions, but this will hardly be necessary for the three lower classes.

ALPHABETICAL DESIGNATION OF DIVISIONS

After all of the divisions have been distributed among the recitation groups there should be some comprehensive designation of divisions. The method of designation described below is one of the distinctive features of this school programme. It is so simple that it can readily be understood by pupil and teacher, and it can be used equally well by schools with restricted or schools with free election.

All studies are classified as first-, second-, or third-year studies, according to the year when they can first be elected. Each class in the school is divided into equal alphabetically arranged sections. In the three upper classes about 35 pupils, and in the entering class 25 pupils are assigned to a section. These sections are designated by the letters of the alphabet, section "a"

being the alphabetically first 35 or 25 pupils, section "b" the alphabetically second, etc. Thus, in the Roxbury High School for the present year, Class IV is divided into two such sections called "a" and "b," Class III into five sections designated by the letters "a" to "e," Class II into six sections designated by letters "a" to "f," and Class I into twelve sections designated by letters "a" to "l." Class II may be selected for illustrative purposes. It consists of 205 pupils, and is divided into six sections, five with 34 pupils each, and one with 35, designated as Sections *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, and *f*. Since English is required of all pupils in Class II, each of these alphabetical sections constitutes a recitation division in English, known as English II *a*, English II *b*, etc. Of the 205 pupils in Class II a little over one hundred elected French II. This is about one pupil out of two, and it would therefore take two of the equal alphabetical sections to yield a sufficient number of pupils to form one recitation division in French II, and such a division is accordingly designated by two letters of the alphabet, "French II *af*," "*cd*," or "*be*," the letters indicating the source of its pupils. Again, only a third of the pupils elected Latin II, and therefore three alphabetical sections would be necessary to yield sufficient pupils to form a Latin II division, which is called "Latin II *abc*" or "*def*." In like manner every division is designated by one or more letters of the alphabet, the subjects with the fewer divisions having the larger number of letters, and the letters in every case indicating the alphabetical sections from which the pupils came. It there is but one division in a subject no letters at all are used.

Three very important things may be accomplished by this method of designating divisions:

First, It tends to make divisions of the same kind equal in size. Since the basis of this method is the equal alphabetical section, and since each recitation division of a given kind draws its pupils from as nearly as possible the same number of sections, it follows that the divisions themselves should be about equal in size.

Second, It directs the pupil in his choice of divisions and enables him, if necessary, to make out his own programme. A

pupil in alphabetical section "a" chooses only recitation divisions designated by "a," pupils in section "b" only those designated by "b," etc.

Third, These letters may be used to avoid conflict within recitation groups. Since each letter represents an entirely different section of pupils it follows that there can be no conflict within a recitation group unless letters are repeated. Such repetition is therefore avoided as far as possible in designating studies of the same year within a group. An illustration will make this clear. The following divisions of first-year subjects occur in one recitation group: English I *g*; English I *h*; physical training I *def*; history I *ab*; French I *bc*; German I *abc*; algebra I *jk*; book-keeping I *i*; book-keeping I *j*. The letters have been chosen so as to avoid repetition as far as possible. It will be noticed that the letter "a" is repeated in history I and German I. The pupils then of alphabetical section "a" who happen to take these two subjects would have a conflict. They would retain German I, because there are fewest divisions of this study, and seek another history I division. The method of widest distribution has placed one or more history I divisions in every recitation group, and no difficulty will be found in finding one. Letters "b" and "c" are repeated in French I and German I, but there is no conflict here because pupils cannot elect both of these languages in their entering year. The letter "j" is repeated in algebra I and book-keeping I, but there is slight chance of conflict here because pupils rarely elect these two subjects in the same year. No other letters of the twelve alphabetical sections into which the entering class is divided are repeated, and there is therefore no other possibility of conflict. This principle of avoiding conflicts by avoiding as far as possible the repetition of letters within a group has been carried throughout the entire programme. It is of very great importance in the lowest classes, but of decreasing importance as you go upward, for two reasons: First, because of the increasing number of studies in the higher classes, with but one division; and, second, because of the increasing number of pupils who reach back and elect studies of previous years.

There are then two distinct methods of avoiding conflict

in this programme, one by having six non-conflicting recitation groups, which may be called a horizontal variable, and the other by avoiding alphabetical repetition within the group, which may be called a vertical variable. Given these two variables there are many different ways in which every pupil's programme may be arranged. If one arrangement causes a conflict another can easily be found which avoids it.

In the entering class 25 instead of 35 is taken as the number in an alphabetical section, for two reasons: First, because it is desirable that recitation divisions in this class be smaller than those in the three upper classes; and second, because it is always difficult accurately to forecast in June the number of pupils who will enter in September. It very often happens that a programme carefully made out during the summer fails to work in September because of an unexpectedly large entering class, and consequent extra recitation divisions. If 25 is taken as a basis, each division can increase to 35 without serious harm, the more so because in this class it is likely to decrease to 30 or less before January 1. An increase from 25 to 35 means an allowance for an increase of 40 per cent. in the entering class. Even this large increase could be accommodated without the formation of a new division, because the extra pupils would evenly distribute themselves among the various alphabetical divisions already established. As an example in hand, the programme for the Roxbury High School was made out last summer on the basis of 300 pupils in the entering class, but nearly 400 entered. These pupils were accommodated without the formation of an extra division.

PUPILS' INDIVIDUAL PROGRAMMES

It has already been stated that for the three upper classes time and confusion at the beginning of the school year would be saved if each pupil's individual programme could be made out during the summer and given to him when he entered in the fall. Under many conditions this would be a tremendous and well-nigh impossible task to accomplish. With a programme made upon the plan of this one, however, it can be done by the expenditure on

the average of not over a minute to a programme, and it is well worth this expenditure of time. Two illustrations will make my meaning clear.

Etta A. Gore, Class III, elects:

	Groups	Changed Groups
English III.....	3	6
Physical training II.....	1	4
Choral practice.....	7	..
French I.....	5	3
German III.....	5	..
Household arts and science I	1	..

This is a difficult programme to arrange, because the pupil has reached back and chosen two studies, and in other ways her selection of work is peculiar.

Every teacher is provided with duplicated sheets showing the group, recitation periods, and room for every division, and the alphabetical sections for each class. Reference to these sheets shows that this pupil belongs in alphabetical section "b." All of her recitation divisions then must be designated by the letter "b," and against each of her electives is placed the group number of the "b" division of the same, as indicated above. It will be seen that two of her recitations, French I and German III, come in the same recitation group, 5, and therefore conflict. German III is retained because there is but one division in this subject, and another French I division is sought. To arrange it, the group assignments of two other electives must be changed as indicated above. As finally arranged her group numbers read 6, 4, 7, 3, 5, 1. This programme is now ready to be made out on one of the blanks, as given above, by the pupil himself, or, better still, by the teacher to be handed to the pupil when he enters school.

In the next example, the alphabetical section is found to be "e," and the group numbers of the "e" divisions in the different electives to be as indicated. Two numbers, 7 and 2, are repeated. There is no conflict in group 7 because Military Drill and Choral Practice do not come at the same time. There is a conflict in group 2, but another Hygiene division is found in group 6. His group numbers as finally arranged read 5, 7, 7, 6,

4, 1, 2. There is no repetition of group numbers other than 7, and therefore no conflict possible. As soon as one is familiar with group distributions, the placing of these group numbers against each elective and the necessary changes in the same can be done very rapidly.

Harold Mitchell, Class II, elects:

	Groups	Changed Groups
English II.....	5	..
Military drill.....	7	..
Choral practice.....	7	..
Hygiene.....	2	6
French II.....	4	..
Book-keeping II.....	1	..
Phonography I.....	2	..

With the entering class this cannot be done until the opening day of school, but there are always many divisions of every first-year subject, and conflicts are very easily avoided. It is possible on the opening day for pupils of this class to choose their studies and make out their own programmes, and on the second day to bring their parents' approval of their choice and be ready for work.

Before leaving this subject it should be stated that the fundamental assumption of this programme is that all divisions in a given subject should be taught alike. It ignores, for example, such a thing as a college division in algebra, and another division in the same subject for pupils who are not going to college, or special classes in English for commercial pupils, and other classes for other pupils. It assumes that algebra or English, if taught at all, should be taught equally well to all pupils. How often you see in high schools small college preparatory divisions to which are assigned the best teachers and the largest number of recitations, and which can be carried only at the cost of larger classes and poorer teaching in other divisions of the same subject. Such a distribution of the teaching force is not only not economical from a financial standpoint, but it is unjust to a large number of pupils, and it tends to create undesirable class dis-

tinctions in the school. More than that, the formation of special classes of this kind greatly decreases the flexibility of the programme, and increases the difficulty of programme making. The natural, the economical, and the equable way to meet special demands of this kind is to fit the pupil as far as possible in the regular class, and to assign extra periods for whatever extra work may be necessary.

EQUALIZATION OF DIVISIONS

It has already been stated that the plan of this programme tends to keep equal in size recitation divisions of the same kind. Some exceptions to this will be found, however, for two reasons: First, because, in adjusting conflicts, divisions sometimes gain or lose unequally, and second, because it is not always possible to assign the same number of letters to each division.

In Class II, referred to above, there were enough pupils elected phonography I to form four divisions. There are but six alphabetical sections in Class II, and four is not an equal divisor of six. For this reason, two of the divisions in phonography I were designated by two letters each, and two by one letter each. The two-letter divisions would be larger than the one, and would have to be equalized.

To accomplish this equalization, after the pupils' programmes have been indicated, they should be tabulated once more by divisions. This is not a difficult task, and, once accomplished, the size of every division in the three upper classes is known, and equalization can be made merely by changing group numbers on the pupil's elective sheet.

CONCLUSIONS

The present programme has been in use in the Roxbury High School for two years. With no restrictions upon elections, other than the general ones already spoken of, the programme allowed this year 99 per cent. of the electives of Class IV (the highest class), 99.5 per cent. of Class III, 100 per cent. of Class II, and 100 per cent. of Class I, and 99.7 per cent. of the electives of the entire school. Almost as good a showing was made the year before.

During the first year of its trial it also provided instruction for an increased number of pupils with one less teacher than was employed the year before. Both years the school began its regular programme the second day of the school year instead of the second or third week, a saving of time which, if applied to the entire teaching force, would be nearly equivalent to a year's teaching by one teacher.

A summary of the fundamental elements in the making of a good school programme should include:

First, The division of the school week into such a number of recitation periods that the pupil with an average programme shall have a sufficient number of unemployed periods to avoid conflicts in his choice of work. Thirty periods is better than twenty-five for this purpose.

Second, The division of these recitation periods into a certain number of non-conflicting recitation groups.

Third, The arrangement of these groups so as to equally distribute early and late periods of the day, and to provide for necessary extra or double laboratory periods.

Fourth, The election of studies for the ensuing year by pupils of the three upper classes not later than June 1.

Fifth, The tabulation of the pupils' electives, and the estimation of the number of recitation divisions.

Sixth, The distribution of these recitation divisions among the recitation groups in such a way as to avoid conflict on the part of both the teacher and the pupil.

Seventh, The designation of these recitation divisions in such a way as to guide the pupil in his choice of divisions, to insure equality in the size of divisions of like kind, and to avoid conflict within the recitation group.

Eighth, The indication of the individual programmes of all pupils in the three upper classes before they enter school in the fall.

Ninth, A tabulation of pupils' electives by divisions, and an equalization of divisions of like kind.

Tenth, The preparation, in duplicate, for use by teachers, of such copies of the programme as may be necessary to direct new pupils in their choice of work.

OBSERVATIONS CONCERNING GOVERNMENT HIGHER SCHOOLS IN WEST CHINA

AMASA ARCHIBALD BULLOCK

Most travelers in China of a literary bent have, it seems, felt called upon to convey to their less fortunate brethren at home generalizations concerning the status of the people there, socially, morally, and intellectually, and to discuss the political, economic, and educational significance and outlook attached thereto. It would have been well if most of these writings had been candidly labeled, *Impressions of a Careless Traveler*, in order that the world might have properly classified them as literary art and license and not as encyclopedic information. Residents in China, who are students of conditions there, know full well how reckless and how far from the truth these writings tend to be, and have come to maintain a chronic attitude of antipathy toward all such attempts to do what they themselves seem scarcely able to do. Observations made by the most seasoned and careful of these students are subject to numerous exceptions, if not in the immediate vicinity of the observer, in other portions of the great empire.

It is, therefore, with a great deal of hesitation, that the present effort to isolate certain general facts connected with the status of the "new education" in China is attempted. Let it be understood at once, then, that the writer shall describe only those situations that came under his personal observation during a period of residency in west-central China, as a teacher in a government college. This portion of China apparently is little known to western readers. Furthermore, it is as isolated from the influences of the coastwise provinces, where most of the foreign innovations are seen, as is the Pacific slope from the Atlantic seaboard, and more so, for the only open route of travel involves a journey of about two months up the Yangtse River before the center of political and educational influences of all that vast region is reached. About this center, the city of

Cheng-tu, is gathered a homogenous population nearly equal to that of the United States. However much the educational situations may differ from those on the coast, they are, it is believed, fairly representative for this great western portion of the empire.

Perhaps the first strong impression that a westerner receives upon coming into touch with one of these new Chinese educational institutions is that one and all of the westernisms, which they have incorporated by the wholesale, have been corrupted. Against this he revolts; how much better is the thought that they continue to use their own conventions, than to pollute ours; to maintain their own customary environment, the spirit and meaning of which they understand and appreciate, than to incorporate part of the form but none of the spirit of ours. And there is no denying, for example, the picturesqueness of the long, clean, blue gown of the student, with the long, carefully braided queue hanging down his back, and the neatly shaven forehead, setting off the natural fulness of the fresh, open countenance. The contrast of this native dress with the slovenly attempts sometimes made, to imitate our tailored garments with cheap cotton muslin, and our tightly fitting shoes, is fairly painful. The jaunty home-made cap forms a most unhappy combination with the long, braided hair. The buildings, schoolrooms, and furniture are often no better than attempts at imitation; the division of the students into classes, with recitation and study periods, marking of grades, graduation ceremonies, diplomas, etc., are but outward semblances of our own. Gradually, upon more intimate acquaintance, a more charitable and rational view forces itself home and the westerner begins to realize that certain forms are, after all, inseparable from the spirit and subject-matter of our curricula; hence the acceptance by the Chinese of our educational ideas and ideals, means perforce the taking over of some of the forms, the machinery by which they are attained. In perhaps every instance it will be observed that the educational administrators have adapted this machinery to the local possibilities, and have succeeded in acclimating what would not otherwise persist in the intellectual climate of this very different land. In a word, adaptation, and not adoption, is what has taken place.

To be concrete, the hindering gowns must be discarded when the student is given free reign for the play of his instinctive activities. And let it be borne in mind here that this conception, that the student need not mope solemnly around like an owl, is not the least of the grand new ideals that China has caught from the West. For the first time in the history of the race, the children in the schools are encouraged to play, and they take to it as kindly as if their possibilities had always been so. Athletics are receiving serious attention; in fact the tendency now is to be *too* serious and formal about it; inter-school contests, especially between the elementary schools, are attended with an interest and enthusiasm unsurpassed by our best here at home. In substituting a bifurcated garment for the gowns, then, and leather shoes or boots for the old stiff-soled cloth slippers, they have properly, and by force of circumstances, appealed to their local artisans and drawn upon their native materials, and hence it is not to be expected that an altogether sightly costume should spring forth all at once. But as time goes on, and as the workmen become more skilled in this new departure, this make-shift habit will settle down into something more artistic and more Chinese.

Again, the old Chinese schools demanded no division into classes at all; the curriculum consisting essentially of but one subject, each student advanced as fast as his ability and diligence permitted. Now it is necessary to make the familiar division into classes. This division they base primarily upon date of entrance into the institution. Entrance examinations are usually held, but being based principally, if not wholly, upon the Chinese classics, no homogeneity upon the basis of academic equality in western subjects is possible. There is not even the equality of zero, for no longer is it true that all students come up with no preparation in these branches; the translation bureaus and presses of the great publishing houses in Shanghai have been working with great earnestness and speed, and have spread our languages and sciences and philosophy and history and religious writings broadcast, and upon these every educated, progressive man has been at work. Moreover, the mission schools, and a few

natively endowed and publicly supported schools have been for some time preparing students in western subjects. From this it may be inferred that the class coming up for high-secondary or college work is a difficult proposition for the imported teacher. But it bothers him far more than it does either the school officials or the students themselves. They settle this lack of equality, or entire lack, in preparation, by advancing each student in and with his class, and at the end of the stipulated period graduating the whole class, provided some other cause does not enter in, such as insubordination. By this method the school passes its students along with surprising smoothness and regularity, ridding itself easily of the clogging effects of "hold-backs." But it is always most careful to protect itself by faithfully recording all grades and averages attained by the individuals, and at the end of the term, and at graduation, publishing these for circulation. Even on the diplomas the final grades and rank in class are carefully inscribed—one such diploma was seen with a grade of 15 per cent. inscribed upon it. Thus, in effect, the school says, "We take no responsibility; if you want to judge a man, look at his grades and standing, not his diploma. We simply certify that he has spent the prescribed length of time here, and has taken this list of subjects." This feature, we are prone to say, is sure evidence of the pioneering stage of western education in China. While this is true, it is still more to the point that it is thoroughly Chinese in its inception and practice, for at every turn, among other features, it is planned "to save face." On this count alone it has a fundamentally psychological basis. These administrators are wise in their generation—wiser than many foreigners who have established schools in China. Every foreigner there in this work knows how much of what we deem immovable principle must be compromised in order to attain the best results with these students. It is to be regretted that some foreigners, either from lack of ability or willingness, do not adapt their ordinary conventions to the Chinese conditions.

Another outstanding feature of these schools is the helter-skelter scramble they are making to acquire some sort of a grasp of these western subjects, and the slight appreciation entertained

of the great price they must pay for this accumulation of centuries. One old Chinese gentleman, it is reported, has expressed a general conception by remarking, upon learning that our alphabet contained but twenty-six letters, that they could learn all that we could do with that number of "characters"! One would suppose that the first brush of the students with, say mathematics, would cure them of this rush and this conceit, but the disposition seems to blame the teacher, lack of time, anything but themselves or the intrinsic difficulty of the subject. This general attitude leads, in one college, to a fresh clamor at the opening of each term, by both officers and teachers, to the foreign teachers, to cut down the time devoted to work already being done, and to add entirely new courses. To be entirely fair, there probably does exist an appreciation of the great amount of work that must ultimately be covered—and this appreciation is becoming more and more vivid, but the conceit in themselves, and, be it added, in the abilities of their foreign teachers, to do this herculean task, seems to be little lessened by the many failures recorded against them by these teachers. As a result of this intense earnestness in the college in question, divisions are sitting in the lecture- and classrooms (study periods aside) upward of forty hours per week, and at the close of the term being examined in as high as seventeen subjects! And in the face of a condition like this, the clamor to rush the work still more, so that they might get out and go to teaching the sooner, became so insistent that six months was lopped off the four years' course of the secondary-school students.

It must not be inferred from what has been said that no real results are being achieved, for notwithstanding these and other kindred handicaps, much real knowledge is being gained, and, better than this, the more adequate educational ideal is gaining ground rapidly. Naturally the situation has a brighter side than we are presenting just here. It scarcely need be remarked that when these handicaps are removed the Chinese students will be second to none in the world. Already many indications point to the fact that the turning-point has been reached and that educational practices are settling down into normal healthy channels.

It is simply unthinkable that a nation of scholars, so thorough and laboriously patient as they have been with their own classics, should long continue to slight our learning. Undoubtedly this national habit of taking their study most seriously, and devoting long hours to its pursuit, has been transferred directly to the present study of western subjects, and much of what we have classed above as enthusiasm may equally well be said to be habit. But whether we class this intense application in one category or the other, or in both at the same time, makes little difference in the final outcome, which is that *results* beyond all that we can now see are bound to be achieved by it.

Another striking fact connected with these schools is the widespread insubordination of the students. It is not the trivial lack of proper deportment of schoolboys, or the rowdiness of college students of this country, for the Chinese student, in school and out, is a model of attention and gentlemanly conduct. The "rough-house" is one institution not yet transplanted. It is due to a serious belief on the part of the students that some desire of theirs should be gratified, or that some right of theirs is being abused. When no other means suffice to persuade the officers to their point of view, a strike is the inevitable method used. It is a powerful weapon of aggression, for, strange as it may seem to us that government school officials should be thus moved, in a large number of cases, probably in a majority, they have been successful. It is always difficult in China to say who actually wins out in a squabble, for a compromise is the first thing thought of and usually in one form or another prevails; but in the case of these school strikes, which consist in a refusal to attend classes, it seems to the foreigner that any sort of a compromise is a victory for the students. Practically, judging from the growing frequency and the trivial causes back of the strikes, the students are the winners.

An illustration or two may serve to make this point clear. In one case, about a year ago, a whole school struck because one of their number was punished by a proctor for persisting in practicing upon the school organ during the evening study period. In another case a Japanese professor was forced to

resign his post because, nominally, he overstepped his authority in mildly reprimanding a class for lack of attention to their notebooks; the whole class refused to attend his recitations until some sort of an agreement was patched up, and at the end of the term he resigned. It is less than four months since a whole college was on strike pending the adjustment of a fight which broke out during the field-day sports then in progress; two weeks in all were thus lost right in the midst of the semester. It should be added here that it is very difficult for one to get at the real cause of these disagreements, for the assigned reason and the real one may have little in common; even the principals will talk to each other in riddles. On two separate occasions, during graduation ceremonies, the writer has seen a student deliberately step out of the line of his fellows, walk across the great floor in the face of the whole assemblage of students, officials, and visiting dignitaries of the highest rank, and hand his certificate back to the chancellor of education of the province with some remark to the effect that he had not been accorded his proper rank. Only an amazing amount of either stupidity or courage could prompt such a public announcement, for the charges implied were of a most serious kind and could only result in his undoing as a student, unless he belonged to a sufficiently influential family or could stir the student body to his support. After the close of one of these ceremonies the customary "feast" was set for the students; but instead of enjoying it in a normal fashion they deliberately overturned every table with their heavy loads of victuals, savories, and dishes. The reason for this extraordinary piece of vandalism never leaked out from the president's office, but it was probably done in sympathy for the aggrieved student who so soon sank into oblivion.

Nowhere in the world has the teacher been held in greater respect than in China. He has simply ruled supreme in all that pertains to his sphere; hence the present revolt from his authority is the more surprising. To some extent it is no doubt newly found liberty being interpreted as license; and as precedent is a persistent master in China, it is not pleasant to contemplate the

final outcome of these many yieldings of the officials to the students.

Back of these strikes lies the propensity of the Chinese to organize into various kinds of secret societies. The students are no strangers to this instinct and although forbidden to organize by severe penalties, nevertheless do. All the efforts of the government to blot out their existence seems to be ineffectual. Aside from the fact that the strikes are thus fostered and energized, probably the chief objection to these societies is that they are the breeding-places of the revolutionary spirit. For the reasons above mentioned and because of the ever-present dissatisfaction with the reigning dynasty, the students seem to be in a perpetual state of unrest. Undoubtedly this feeling is fostered by the Chinese students who are over in Japan studying. These latter, being free from all trammels, organize to their heart's content and, under the influence of their successful progressive hosts, become most radical and anarchistic in their expressions against their own government. Whether the Japanese directly foster this spirit or not, we are not in a position to judge, for the evidence is conflicting, but certainly they do not suppress it. The outcome of this condition is that a vast amount of literature is printed and sent over to China to inflame the students at home. This results in its turn in a strict censoring of all literature that comes into the students' hands and with the usual result that much really good literature is denied them. A school never knows when the censors may order its great gates closed, and every man and every nook and corner be subjected to a minute search. Not infrequently during the last year, in one city, for reasons not clearly given out, numbers of students were imprisoned, and in several other instances students were beheaded. We do not profess to understand how fundamentally deep these feelings may be, nor to know how widespread these conditions may appertain, and repeat that reference is made here to the conditions as they were observed in west China, and in those schools under government control.

In conclusion we would call attention to the paradoxical condition presented in the foregoing observations—to the westerner,

the Chinese seem to do everything "backward." We say that, on the one hand, strict obedience to school discipline should be insisted upon, where obedience obtains, and, on the other, a progressive inauguration of such reforms as are consistent with the expanding knowledge and enlarged experience of the students—and be it added, of the whole people—should be the policy.

THE PHONETIC METHOD IN TEACHING MODERN LANGUAGES

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Let me first briefly outline the phonetic method of instruction in modern foreign languages as it is employed in numerous European schools, more particularly in certain secondary schools in Germany. It is variously known as the phonetic, the direct, the imitative, the analytical-inductive, the new, or the reform method, according as one salient feature of the system is emphasized to the exclusion of all others, or as attention is focused upon its departure from the traditional method of instruction. For the purpose of the present discussion the designation I have adopted seems to me the most appropriate one.

The starting-point for instruction according to this method is the spoken word, not the printed page, the sound, not the letter. Hence, teaching is at first exclusively oral. The task of the pupil at this stage consists in mastering the sounds of the language to the extent that he learns to recognize them when uttered in his hearing and to reproduce them according to the model of the teacher. Not until he knows the sounds does he meet their equivalent in writing.

In accordance with this oral basis, pronunciation is considered of prime importance. Painstaking care is necessary at the outset, since the pupil already speaks his own tongue, to have him hear the peculiarities of the foreign sounds and to enable him to utter them himself. For this purpose recourse is had to the assistance offered the schoolroom by the physiology of speech sounds, the science of phonetics. The pupil is taught the organic positions and movements requisite to produce the sounds in question. For the purpose of simplifying this task many adherents of the reform movement make a more or less extended use of phonetic symbols.

Another cardinal doctrine of the reformers is the belief that the more direct the connection established between a thing and

its name, the more direct the association between an idea and its expression, the more permanent and effective it will be. Therefore, except where absolutely necessary, the mother tongue is excluded. The pupil is obliged to think and express himself in the foreign idiom and the teacher uses the same medium of communication. Pantomime, gesture, bodily movement, impressions made by concrete objects upon the various senses, all sorts of devices are employed to enable the instruction to dispense with the vernacular. After some advance has been made, since not all objects are objects of sense and not all ideas are ideas of concrete things, this mode of procedure is continued through reliance upon that command of the language which the pupil has gradually acquired.

The reading-book forms the center of instruction, only connected texts being read. Subject-matter, terms, and phraseology are assimilated directly without the mediation of translation. Through imitation or reproduction of what has been heard from the lips of the teacher, or what has been worked out in the reading-book, with the aid of question and answer, dialogue, description, and explanation, all new material is impressed upon the mind and fixed in the memory.

A vocabulary is acquired, not by mechanically memorizing lists of words, which are applied a single time in the reading-lesson and then possibly worked over in sentences translated by the pupil from the vernacular, but through frequent repetition of the terms, the meaning of which has been learned by the devices above enumerated. This acquisition is facilitated through constant reference to the connection in which the new words or expression has occurred. When the reading of literary texts begins, of course the use of the dictionary is indispensable.

Of all departments of language-study no one has excited the opposition of the reform school to such a degree as the traditional treatment of grammar in instruction for beginners. With the reformers the principle obtains: first the language, then the grammar. By this is not meant that a language can be acquired without a knowledge of its grammatical structure; even the use of the mother tongue presupposes this. What the reformers do

claim, however, is that the learner can acquire a gradually increasing command of a foreign language without having to be able first to formulate the principle upon which every linguistic phenomenon he applies in practice depends. Through acquaintance with sufficient examples of the phenomenon in question he comes, unconsciously, to appropriate it in a far more efficient way than by the old procedure. This attitude toward grammar grows out of restrictions imposed by the very nature of the method. Since the pupil is to be accustomed from the first to connected discourse, since he is trained to question and answer, to follow and take part in dialogues and descriptions, this mode of instruction would be impossible if a complete mastery of the grammatical principles involved in every phrase or expression had to keep pace with his growing power in oral and written command of the language.

But the theory of grammar, the grouping of language-facts in a systematic manner, according to definite rules, is in no wise neglected; only it is done, to use a favorite expression of the reformers, "auf induktivem Wege."

Basing upon his mastery of the linguistic material appropriated for the most part unconsciously through imitation of and patterning after his model, the pupil is led either by his own efforts to find or under the direction of the teacher to recognize the grammatical principle to which attention is directed and of which illustrations are embodied in the dialog, narrative, or description under consideration. After recognition and formulation of the principle, ingeniously constructed exercises, always in connection with the text, afford abundant practice in declensions and conjugations. Thus, step by step, proceeding from the particular to the general, i. e., from the example to the rule, each group of phenomena is studied until a considerable body of grammatical knowledge has been built up. The sections on grammar in the reading-book or the separate chapters in the regular grammar are to be employed for reference to assist the pupil in review or to supplement what has been left fragmentary.

The use of *Realien* constitutes a valuable adjunct to this method of instruction. In addition to the well-known and widely

used pictures of the seasons by Hölzel, upon which conversation can be based, whatever tends to throw light upon the material and spiritual life of the nation whose language is being studied receives a hearty welcome. With this end in view the first texts studied are constructed. Pictures of celebrated persons and important places, maps and plans of cities, casts and models, illustrated descriptions of garb, manners, and customs, photographs depicting historical events, reproductions of works of art in painting and sculpture, views of landscapes noted for their beauty, are introduced not simply to enliven the work of the classroom but to familiarize the pupil with the foreign environment. To some extent even geography and history, political and social institutions, industrial conditions, make up the subject-matter of instruction. In short, a systematic effort is put forth to create an atmosphere most conducive to a sympathetic appreciation of the foreign land and people.

If so much assistance in preparation be given by the teacher, where does the effort come from upon which permanent acquisition depends? The reformer would reply to this objection: Only in the first stages of his study does the pupil receive a great amount of assistance, as every unaided step is then fraught with danger. Nowhere in the whole field of education does initiatory blundering show more disastrous consequences than in the learning of a foreign language. Moreover, as long as the pupil is in the classroom constant appeal is being made to his self-activity. It would be difficult to imagine a more rigorous discipline in self-expression than a course in which he is persistently required to prove his mastery of the subject-matter by using in speech and in writing the foreign medium of expression.

The foregoing outline will show that many of the ideas employed by the reform school are not distinctive of the method called phonetic. On the contrary, long before Viëtor appeared on the scene with his celebrated pamphlet,¹ some of the leading features of the system had been strenuously advocated by educa-

¹ Quousque Tandem (Wilhelm Viëtor), *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*, 3d ed., Leipzig, 1905, enlarged with notes; original ed., anonymous, 1882.

tional reformers. Moreover, every so-called "natural method," whether it be the one represented by Heness and Sauveur or that known as the "psychological" method of Gouin, insists upon the importance of the spoken language as the starting-point. Even the use of connected texts and the subordination of grammar to practical command of the language through imitation and reproduction had been embodied in previous attempts to bring language study more in line with genetic principles. Vietor himself candidly admits that "the so-called new method is only comparatively new,"² and the same fact appears from any historical survey of the subject.³ Recognizing then in significant respects points of similarity to previous reform ideas, we see the distinctive features of the programme inaugurated by Vietor in the importance attached to pronunciation and the adaptation of phonetic study to the service of elementary instruction. While practice differs somewhat in the extent to which phonetic symbols are employed, some only transcribing words in the vocabulary, others going so far as to use phonetic texts exclusively throughout the whole of the first year, all adherents of the school are united in regarding pronunciation as of prime significance to the beginner and in aiding him through training his ear and organs of speech to gain a mastery of the foreign sounds.

Hausknecht, the author of *The English Student*, a beginner's book widely used in Germany, divides a four years' course into an elementary course of a year and a half, a junior course of a year and a half, and a senior course of one year. Of the elementary course about the first four weeks, called the introductory stage, are devoted to practicing the foreign sounds. Attention is first called to the distinction between sound and letter; while there are only six vowel letters, there are many more vowel sounds. For one and the same letter we may have several sounds, while one and the same sound may be represented by several letters. In practicing the sounds the pupil imitates the teacher; much repetition is necessary so that he may learn to grasp accu-

² *Ed. Rev.*, Vol. VI, November, 1893, p. 351.

³ See Dr. Bahlsen's excellent monograph, "New Methods of Teaching Modern Languages," in *Teachers' College Rec.*, Vol. IV, May, 1903.

ately and reproduce clearly. Some directions as to the movements and position of the tongue and lips may be advantageous. For this purpose the teacher must know phonetics, but for the pupil systematic instruction of the kind is superfluous; after he can correctly reproduce the sound he may forget its physiological explanation. For French, practice in complete sentences is necessary on account of voice modulation, stress, and *liaison*. Single words may be taken at first; later on continuous texts in prose and verse. Single words allow of a systematic arrangement of the sounds and can often be selected, as in the case of historical and geographical proper names, from foreign words used in the pupil's own language. By introducing into the preliminary sound-exercises some continuous passages showing the simplest grammatical relations, the transition to the reading-pieces of the first main stage is facilitated. Probably no book is required for the first lessons of the introductory stage. Later it is needed for review in home preparation. The greater part of the lesson must be oral. Phonetic texts are unnecessary. Good results are obtained if the ordinary orthography is used from the beginning, the phonetic transcription of words being reserved for the vocabulary. The pupil need only be able to read phonetic symbols; writing them may lead to confusion. In the next part of the elementary course the same careful attention is paid to pronunciation.⁴

Bahlsen, in the monograph just noted, recommends a more extended use of phonetic transcription. According to his plan this preliminary sound-drill extends over about two months, during which time the pupil uses no textbook, the teaching being wholly oral. His beginners' class in English employs for home preparation a phonetic transcription prepared by the teacher himself. After the expiration of two months, pieces from the textbook are assigned to be copied in the traditional orthography; this is followed by dictation exercise on the same text after the pupils have memorized the usual spelling at home. Dr. Bahlsen maintains "that even in the first tests a material detriment to the correct

⁴ Cf. "The Teaching of Foreign Languages," Sadler's *Reports on Educational Subjects*, Vol. III, No. 9, pp. 499 ff.

orthography has not resulted.⁷ Moreover, this same teacher does not hesitate to make a minute study of sound physiology with his classes, of course only for practical purposes. He uses phonetic charts on which vowels and consonants are grouped according to the place and manner of their articulation. He explains the activity of the organs concerned in the production of the various sounds. While he is in favor of withholding from classroom instruction the scientific terminology of the phonetician, he does not shrink from explaining to his pupils the characteristic differences in sound production between the mother tongue and the foreign language, tracing them to their physiological origin.

Walter, the well-known Direktor of the Reform Real-Gymnasium at Frankfurt-am-Main, has perhaps gone farther than any other German schoolman in his advocacy of phonetics for beginners.⁸ In his opinion the desired proficiency in pronunciation can most readily be attained if nothing but phonetic texts, accompanied by sustained and systematic use of the sound-chart, are employed during the first three months of instruction. The greater the discrepancy between the pronunciation and the orthography of the given language, the stronger support for the avoidance of an incorrect pronunciation and the acquisition of a pure one will be found in a thorough study of phonetic texts. As an experiment English was begun in *Untersekunda*, i. e., with boys of about fourteen to fifteen, with only a very moderate use of transcription, the transition to ordinary spelling being made after some preliminary study of phonetic texts with the aid of the Vietor charts. But the result in this case was less satisfactory than in the case of a class in *Untertertia*, i. e., with boys two years younger, where phonetic texts were employed exclusively during the first quarter. Older boys require this thorough drill more than the younger ones, since their vocal organs are less flexible and hence do not permit them to imitate the foreign sounds with the same facility. Even if spelling were rendered more difficult by this process, it would be far easier to correct

⁸ See especially his *Englisch nach dem Frankfurter Reformplan*. Marburg, 1900.

mistakes of spelling than to overcome the habit of incorrect pronunciation.

Although the reform movement has met with more or less enthusiastic reception on the Continent and in England, and seems to be gaining ground all the time, it appears to have made but little headway in the United States. Now and then we hear of sporadic attempts to introduce this or that feature as, e. g., when a certain amount of conversation is employed, or when the course is begun with the reading of connected texts and only the essentials of grammar are studied in an incidental way, or when representations of life and scenes in foreign countries are employed, or when some preliminary attention is given to pronunciation on a phonetic basis. Where the circumstances surrounding the instruction are especially favorable to such a mode of procedure, certain teachers employ the foreign language as far as practicable as the medium of communication in the classroom. On the whole, however, our practice seems to be dominated by the reading method. According to this method the pupil spends all but a fraction of the time devoted to the foreign language in the reading of literary texts, in the understanding of which he is expected to acquire proficiency enough, provided he pursue the study sufficiently long, to dispense with translation into the mother tongue. This is the plan that appeared to the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America best adapted to the secondary instruction of this country. It is not my purpose to criticize the stand taken in that report, with the essentials of which my own attitude thoroughly accords. I simply wish to emphasize two or three matters which, in my judgment, have not received the consideration they merit at the hands of the American teacher.

Psychology based on the study of the brain teaches that four distinct areas of this organ are concerned in the acquisition of language, known respectively as the auditory center, the visual center, the motor-speech center, and the graphic center—the first two sensory, the last two motor. The auditory center receives impressions from the ear, the visual center from the eye, the motor-speech center controls the movements of the vocal organs,

the graphic center the movements of the hand in writing. Now, each one of these centers not only receives impressions directly from the sense-organ with which it is connected or sends impulses to the muscles which it controls, but in speaking, reading, or writing, nerve currents known as "association impulses" are constantly passing from one center to the other. In the development of the child as well as that of the race oral speech comes before written speech. Before the child learns to read he has already had so many years of practice in speaking and hearing speech. Accordingly, we expect to find and really do find, as has been pointed out by Dr. Lukens⁶ that "the motor-speech center and the auditory-word center have a far better established organization physically than the writing and reading centers." On this account these centers may be regarded as primary while the writing and reading centers appear as subordinate and secondary. Hence it appears to me that we are neglecting a valuable hint furnished us by the very organization of our brain as to the method we ought to pursue, if we pay no more attention to colloquial practice than is ordinarily done. By colloquial practice I mean anything of the nature of oral expression and communication. To this position the objection may be made, with a considerable degree of justice, that a distinction must be drawn between the process of a child learning to understand its first language, the mother tongue, and the process of an adolescent or adult acquiring a second, a foreign language. While in the former case the learner has to depend in the main upon auditory images and to a very slight extent upon visual impressions gained from observing the lips of the speaker, in the latter case the chief avenue of approach may reasonably be taken along the visual road, through the use of books. Notwithstanding this difference it still remains true that we cannot afford to lose sight of the gain to be derived from employing those channels through which the child has made his first acquisition in language and as a result of which they furnish a physical basis for further linguistic attainment.

⁶ *Ped. Sem.*, Vol. III, June, 1896, p. 431.

Another basis for the advantage to be derived from ample oral exercise is to be found in the law of association and the operation of the memory. Without memory there can be no acquisition of language, not even of one's native speech.

Those experiences are most readily remembered that make the strongest impressions upon our minds. In order to secure the most powerful impression of a given object as many senses as possible must be called into requisition. That is the reason, e. g., why we frequently stop to write on the black-board some word or expression that has come up incidentally in class and that we are solicitous to have our pupils remember; in order to fix the word or expression more firmly we then have it repeated by one or more members of the class. This means simply that we are seeking to establish as many associations as possible by regarding the same language fact from different points of view, from the auditory side, from the visual side, from the motor-speech side. Applied to the common practice of depending solely upon the reading of a given text for an assimilation of its linguistic content, the law of association bids us not to be content with this single appeal to the visual sense. It urges upon us the necessity of going over the same ground through the other avenues open to the mind. The oftener the path is traversed from idea to word and from word to idea, and the more varied the path chosen, the firmer becomes the mental grasp. The more associations set up, the more closely does the material get interwoven into our mental structure.⁷ It not infrequently occurs in reading-classes that the text in hand is not read aloud in the original, the teacher being satisfied to have the pupil show merely by his translation that he has made adequate preparation. I consider this a serious pedagogical mistake, except of course when the reading is done for the sake of the material content alone. Through being compelled to pronounce the passage read the pupil is not restricted to his visual memory for a retention of the text; he has two other sources to fall back upon, the memory of the movements of the vocal organs and the memory of the resultant

⁷ See James, *Talks to Teachers*, especially the chapter on "Memory."

auditory image. His mastery of the language-content of the passage will be proportionate to the sum-total of the impressions received.⁸

With regard to the matter of pronunciation it is urged in some quarters that while it may be highly desirable for the teacher to be able to give to the foreign language its native ring, it does not, after all, matter much whether the pupil can reproduce the German and French sounds with accuracy. But this attitude cannot be sanctioned upon due consideration of the interests involved. From the relation of pronunciation to oral expression, whether the latter consist simply in reading aloud a given text in preparation at home and in classwork, or whether it include colloquial practice in any or all of its forms, it is evident that some sort of pronunciation is necessary. If this be the case, even admitting that the pupil may in many points fall short of the foreign model, I maintain that we should hold him up to the maximum degree of accuracy obtainable under the circumstances; and with competent instruction and not abnormally defective organs a close approach to the original is possible. Careful attention to the details of pronunciation trains his ear and vocal organs and makes him susceptible to differences which would otherwise escape observation. This is a valuable aesthetic exercise both in itself and because it reacts in a helpful way upon his enunciation of the mother tongue. If a correct and clear pronunciation of English is desirable, since slovenly, careless, incorrect utterance is a mark of illiteracy, why should we be satisfied with less in a foreign language? A good pronunciation is pleasing both to him who possesses it and to him who hears it. Moreover, this sort of training has the same sort of disciplinary value that belongs to careful attention to details in any department. Finally, he who has learned to pronounce well has laid the foundation for an accomplishment that may become eminently profitable in after life. He may be called upon to put to use in a practical way the results of his foreign-language study and he will find in his communication with foreigners no more effective aid to mutual

⁸ Pershing, "Language and Brain Disease," *Popular Science Monthly*, October, 1892, has some valuable suggestions along this line.

intelligibility than the power he has gained from attention to pronunciation.

Whether or not the teacher will avail himself of the help offered by the application of phonetics to this part of the instruction will depend in the main upon his acquaintance with the subject, upon his appreciation of the difficulties involved, and upon his taste for work of such nature. No one will deny that the learner needs to be informed of the differences between the sounds of his native speech and the related sounds of the foreign tongue, unless his version of it is to be a mere caricature. A little elementary instruction in the physiological production of speech-sounds will impart to him this information, for which no elaborate apparatus and no great expenditure of time is required. The objection to the use of phonetics assumes one of two forms. Either it is maintained that the introduction of sound-symbols increases a task already difficult enough and interferes with acquisition of the usual orthography, or else it is claimed that all study of sound-production is superfluous or even fruitless as the pupil can learn pronunciation by imitation. These objections may supplement one another. As to the first, we have the assurance of reformers who are experienced teachers and who have made abundant use of phonetic notation, that no marked effect upon the orthography is noticeable, that the gain on the other side, however, is considerable. My own experience in the use of sound-symbols with children has been too limited to allow me to form a pronounced opinion. But wherever I have used them the transition to ordinary spelling has been made without difficulty. As to the popular appeal to imitation, Sweet⁹ remarks that it is as fallacious to suppose that pronunciation can be learned by mere imitation as it is to suppose that one can learn fencing by seeing other people fence. In order to imitate correctly I must first hear correctly. Now this is not so easy as is commonly believed. My range of hearing is limited by a well-defined basis of audition, according to which I can perceive adequately only those sounds to which my ear has been trained from childhood

⁹ *The Practical Study of Languages*, p. 5.

and for which it has developed the requisite auditory habit. But this is not all. In order to imitate correctly, I must be able to reproduce what I hear. In this again my ability is limited by a well-defined basis of articulation dependent upon the speech-characteristics of my native tongue. These considerations strengthen the conviction that we must, if we wish to secure the best results possible, adopt all means at our disposal to overcome or lessen the difficulties in the way of hearing and reproducing the foreign sounds. Our most efficient instrument to attain this end is a clear knowledge of the organs concerned in sound-production and the mode of their operation. A not very keen sense of hearing can be compensated by knowledge of the exact process of vocalization, but the most sensitive ear cannot compensate for marked deficiency on the other side; just as in the playing of a musical instrument technique goes a long way toward making up what is lacking in feeling, while the most soulful performer is powerless to express his feeling when he lacks the necessary technique.

The use of phonetic symbols is a matter relatively indifferent. They are a convenient device for recalling the auditory image, enabling one to obtain the end in view more readily than by depending upon the unaided memory. If charts are at hand and the book employed contains the phonetic transcription of at least the vocabulary, writing the symbols on the part of the pupils may be dispensed with without loss. Further, acquaintance with phonetic principles and phonetic notation can be of benefit indirectly in enabling pupils to reproduce sounds aimed at by phonetic transcription in dictionaries, whether of their own tongue or any other foreign language than the one they are engaged upon.³⁰ Of course, to accomplish this purpose a uniform system of notation is requisite.

We have noticed the desirability of paying more heed to oral expression than is at present the case in much of our foreign-language instruction. We have also noticed the reasons for

³⁰ As has been pointed out by Professor Hempl in the volume of *Proceedings* of the N. E. A. for 1906, pp. 192 ff.

insisting upon a good pronunciation and have referred to the advantages that phonetics offers in assisting us to realize this aim. Even if a reduction of the reading-course should be necessary in consequence, I believe the loss would be more than counterbalanced by the gain.

HIGH-SCHOOL COURSES OF STUDY

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The defects in our high-school courses of study are twofold: some of the courses are invertebrate and most of the courses are too rigid.

At present most Wisconsin high schools have a "modern-classical" course containing four units of Latin and two or more each of German, English, history, mathematics, and science; a "general-science" course, so called not because it contains more of the natural sciences but because it contains two units of the science of German; and an English course which does not give additional emphasis to English but which consists of what is left after Latin and German are subtracted from the other courses.

Such an English course reminds me of some chicken I once ordered in a native restaurant in Athens. The first day it was on the bill of fare "Greek style" and it proved to be excellent; the next day it was "Turkish style" and was the same chicken warmed over; the third day it was "*à l'anglaise*" and was the same chicken warmed over a second time. When I see one of these English courses with all the goodness taken out of them, I seem to taste again that chicken "*à l'anglaise*."

Every course of study should have a backbone consisting of four units of some one subject, and the course should be named from this major group; so that a diploma from the "science course" will signify that the graduate has actually been studying the sciences.

In addition, every course should require two units each of English, history, science, and perhaps of mathematics. Such a course will give a pupil that partial view of several fields of knowledge, and that more intimate acquaintance with one field that is essential as a foundation on which to erect a structure of culture.

The minimum requirements exacted by the Wisconsin State Department of all free high schools, though somewhat more rigid than the above suggestions, nevertheless furnish an excellent basis for an elective course. Taking these requirements as a basis and adding others, a course may be arranged as follows:

STUDIES REQUIRED BY STATE DEPARTMENT

Algebra, 1 unit.

Geometry, 1 unit.

English, 2 units (of which $\frac{1}{2}$ unit must be composition).

Science, 2 units (of which 1 unit must be Physics).

History, $2\frac{1}{2}$ units (two units if six units of foreign language are taken).

ADDITIONAL CREDITS REQUIRED BY LOCAL HIGH SCHOOL

Gymnasium, 1 unit.

Rhetoricals, 1 unit.

Elective, $7\frac{1}{2}$ units.

Total required for graduation, 18 units of which four must be in a department in which a diploma is given.

The course will also need to state: First, the departments in which diplomas are given (one or more of the following: Commercial, domestic science, English, German, history, Latin, manual training, mathematics, science); second, a list of all studies offered in the high school with the amount of credit given in each; third, an additional grouping of high-school studies to show which may be taken first year and what ones may be elected the second year.

Within these limitations every pupil should be allowed to make his own course of study subject to three limitations: First, he may take only those studies which his previous training has prepared him; second, to obtain a diploma, he must meet the requirements outlined above; and third, to obtain a recommendation to any college, he must so select his studies as to meet the requirements of that college.

The necessity for these limitations is self-evident. Obviously a pupil should not be permitted to take a study in which he will waste his own time or retard the progress of the class.

It is equally clear that every pupil must meet the minimum requirements for graduation, but someone may think eighteen units an excessive requirement. The eighteen units are obtained by assuming that a pupil will take four studies a day, making a total of sixteen units, and to this number adding one unit each for gymnasium and rhetorical. To give credit ($\frac{1}{2}$ of a unit each semester) for gymnasium and the same amount for rhetorical and then proportionately to increase the graduation requirement may seem playing with figures—but not so; for, under this arrangement, a pupil who for any reason fails to get credit some semester in gymnasium or rhetorical, thereby gets one-eighth of a unit behind grade and must make this up. Since some may need, from physical defects or other sufficient reasons, to be excused from one or both of these branches, a course of study should not absolutely require one unit of credit in each of these subjects, but should insist upon the total of eighteen units' credit, requiring all who for any reason fail to obtain full credit in gymnasium and rhetorical work to make up the deficiency by extra credits in other branches. This will lessen the tendency some pupils have to avoid these branches and will stimulate the indifferent pupil who does take them to attain at least to the minimum standard of performance for which credit is given.

The third limitation is necessary, because many pupils imagine that a high-school diploma will open the college doors regardless of course pursued. In order that the pupil may have before him some typical entrance requirements, it is well in printing the course of study to include a summary of the entrance requirements of the state university.

That, with such limitations as will insure a broad and solid course, a student should be given every opportunity to arrange his course so as to meet any special requirements that a college or a business position may make of him seems to me too self-evident to need argument; but some who concede the justice of the elective system are deterred from trying it by apparent difficulties in operating such a system.

"There will be too great uncertainty as to the number of pupils who will take each branch," one argues. This can be

entirely obviated by getting from each pupil before the close of a semester, a list of the studies he purposes taking next semester. A high school has a great advantage in organization over a college from the fact that the greater part of the prospective students are already at hand in the eighth grade, where they can be given explanations concerning the courses of study and make their elections before entering high school. Sufficiently complete data may be secured before the close of any semester to enable the principal to confidently organize his scheme and to make a programme before the pupils assemble for the new semester.

"Pupils will seek easy studies," another urges. If pupils tend to flow along channels of least resistance, elective exercises are an excellent device for determining levels, and when the low spots are located they can be filled, until the flood of students covers the curriculum to an even depth.

"An elective system increases the power of the principal," urges some supervising officer. The truth of this is granted, but it is an advantage. If a principal is so incompetent or so malicious that the school as a whole, or individual pupils, need be safeguarded against him by tying his hands with a rigid course of study, he is not fit for his position.

"But pupils may not choose wisely," a cautious principal declares. Suppose that boys with hands created to wield sledgehammers will continue to elect shorthand under the misapprehension that they have been called to be stenographers. Such mistakes will be made under any system, but under an elective system the mistake can be more easily rectified, and the temptation to continue in an unprofitable line merely for the sake of obtaining a diploma will be lessened.

"But many pupils do not know what they want," still another urges. This is true and for the guidance of such pupils it is well, in connection with the printed courses of study, to print some type courses showing *one* way in which the requirement for each diploma may be met. Such tables will look exactly like the rigid courses of study with which we are all familiar, and someone will say, "after all, then, you have gotten back to the old style of

courses of study." But not so, for these suggestive courses are *suggestive only* and, while they furnish suggestions to the pupil who desires them, they do not prevent another pupil who knows what he does want, from doing something else.

There are some distinct administrative advantages in an elective system. Pupils entering from other schools are more easily absorbed into the system; and students not in any regular course cause less confusion. A student can more readily adjust himself to the necessities of the daily programme, and the deadlock that occurs when Seniors have "irrepressible conflicts" with required studies, disappears.

An increased definiteness is given to the whole situation when each pupil realizes that his advancement from class to class and his ultimate graduation depend wholly upon the number of units credit he possesses. The moment a pupil has four and one-half units' credit he ceases to be a first-year pupil and becomes a second-year pupil, and whenever he approaches a school year with thirteen and one-half units to his credit, he can graduate that year without extra work; otherwise he cannot. This clear knowledge on the part of every pupil as to just where he stands solves a multitude of vexatious questions concerning grade and graduation that arise under fixed courses. After several years of experience with both systems it seems to me that elective courses as compared with fixed courses have material advantages and no serious disadvantage.

"THE HOUSE OF THE SEVEN GABLES" AS LITERATURE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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To the sum of adverse criticism which has been intermittently tendered the Committee of Ten on the course their composite wisdom constructed, I wish now to add my page also. Perhaps no one has yet offered objections to the use of Hawthorne's *The House of the Seven Gables* in the secondary schools; and since the cry against "feminization of the schools" has been loud and long, the present time seems most opportune for a denunciation of that concentrated dose of old-maidism.

It is not difficult to understand why the story should have been included in a list of books compiled by a committee of educators who, for the most part, are not teachers, or at any rate not teachers in the secondary schools. Hawthorne is America's greatest literary genius, the critics say, and they are no doubt right. Our young people should be taught to know and love things American; they must not fail to become acquainted with our master of letters. From his short stories, because of the delicate, dream-like indefiniteness which is their greatest charm, young readers cannot receive deep or lasting impressions. It needs a novel to make the contact of sufficient duration to enable them to realize, even in part, the gentle genius. Of Hawthorne's novels, *The Scarlet Letter* is deemed unsuitable because of the forbidden problem, *The Marble Faun* is un-American and non-moral, *The Blithedale Romance* is episodic. By such a process of elimination the Hawthorne advocate finds himself reduced to *The House of the Seven Gables*, which appears suitable, being American, mildly, vaguely so, and innocuous, surely. To the young mind it is also inane, and here lies a part of the mischief.

The book must fail of interest to a majority of high-school pupils. They want to do things and have something doing.

The meditations of a recluse must seem to them a waste of time and of no effect. In this story the meditations of one recluse are reported and enlarged upon by another. Should the pupils give themselves up to the story with the impetuosity natural to their youth, which a few pale girls and delicate boys would perhaps do, they would find themselves shut up in a musty old, silent, rotting, stifling house, waiting with bated breath for Miss Hepzibah to overcome her Pyncheon pride and open the shop door. This stupendous thing accomplished, the action of the piece is almost done. The majority of the pupils would refuse to remain so imprisoned, and while they read Hawthorne's good English, would be going on excursions to seek adventures of their own. So much better for their mental health. That Hawthorne has a delicate touch is not of great interest to them; they are not yet ready to become critics; they should instead be beginning to form a taste for good reading. If *The House of the Seven Gables* does not help to lead them into this life-enriching habit, and I think it cannot, it fails of one of its most important functions.

Another important function of the study of literature in the secondary schools, the educators tell us, and we may well believe it, is to enlarge and ennoble the pupils' ideals of life and character. Which of the poor bloodless creatures in this book will inspire them with enthusiasm for vigorous manhood and noble womanhood? Not the scowling, hesitating, discontented Hepzibah; not poor, foolish Clifford. As portrayals of morbid nature these may have an intellectual interest for the student of psychology; as inspiration for boys and girls they can hardly be made serviceable. Hawthorne preserves this decadent race of Pyncheons from perishing utterly in the usual way, by the infusion of new, plebeian blood; but this is only in prospect, a promise for the next generation, not a tangible reality for the epoch with which he is dealing; which, without action, without living characters, cannot bring to young people large inspirations.

Adolescents are sensitive, moody, impressionable. Shall we stamp their sensitive minds with a thing so morbid? An in-

ventory of the contents of the book shows the following remarkable aggregation: (1) hanging a wizard; (2) an hereditary curse on the Pyncheon family; (3) the mysteriously dead colonel with blood-stained ruff; (4) a decaying wooden house; (5) a poisoned well; (6) a weed-choked garden; (7) degenerate chickens typifying a dying race; (8) a broken-spirited spinster; (9) an imbecile brother; (10) a mesmerist; (11) a dead judge, sitting upright, watch in hand, with blood-stained ruff. The material cannot be called cheerful or wholesome. This, in the hands of the mystical Hawthorne at a time when he says he was languid and dispirited, produced a literature which, it is said, Emerson at one time went about advising people not to read because of its depressing melancholy.

After a lapse of fifteen years, I recalled my first reading of the story with a feeling of dismal weariness. On a second reading, which was of necessity intensive, I was sensible of its depressing influence even to a greater degree. There would probably never have been a second reading had it not become my duty to fit to the eager, restless minds of a class of twenty-six adolescents, half of whom were lively boys, the subtle introspections of Hawthorne and the melancholy meditations of his decayed gentlewoman. A nice task, indeed, but what cannot a teacher with a little skill and so much authority appear to do with a reasonably docile high-school class? What she does and what she appears to do are, of course, often separate and differing quantities. I hope that what I did may result in the least possible harm. I conducted the class intact through the book, for which I claim some credit. They appeared to swallow their daily allotments with admirable submissiveness. We laughed a little with Hawthorne, sighed with Hepzibah, wondered at Clifford, resisted as well as we could the microbes of the unventilated house, and when the author, himself weary of it all, bundled his ghostly people off to the Pyncheon farm in the family carriage, to be rid of them, we emerged from the vapid atmosphere, filled our lungs with fresh air, and set out for the green fields of Raveloe, which by common consent was pronounced a better place to be.

THE CLASSICS AND MODERN LIFE¹

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Ever since the Renaissance there have not been lacking able exponents of the view that the modern is superior to the ancient world; that the literature since the great revival of learning is superior to the literature of classical times, and that the duty of the modern world is to develop itself along modern lines without any great regard to the past. The supremacy of the modern world was ably proclaimed by Perrault in the reign of Louis XIV. The literature of this period, however original it may be, was based upon classic models; and the Battle of the Books, to quote the expression which Swift has made famous, has raged in England as well. That the question is still debated and considered debatable can only mean that the contest is undecided, and that the arguments advanced have been neither convincing nor exhausted.

Without attempting to enter upon this controversy, it is perhaps not improper for a layman to observe that even if the supremacy of the modern world in literature, in art, and in philosophy be admitted, the supremacy is the result of the achievement of the ancient world in literature, art, and philosophy, and that the modern world has reached its present degree of civilization and culture by a return to the traditions of the ancient world, interrupted by the ignorance and indifference of what we are pleased to term the Dark Ages; that the present is a development out of the past, which cannot be understood without a knowledge of the past, and that the civilization and culture of the present are therefore a growth rooted in Greece and Rome, not a condition developed by the immediate past or created by the conditions of the present day.

¹ From a Symposium on The Value of Humanistic, Particularly Classical, Studies as a Training for Men of Affairs, held at the annual meeting of the Classical Conference at Ann Arbor, Michigan, April 3, 1909. See *School Review*, June, 1909.

The question, however, is not one of supremacy either of the past or the present, but of the value to the present of the art, literature, and philosophy, the institutions and civilization of the ancient world. Indeed the question is still narrower, for an expression of opinion is not desired as to the theoretical importance of this knowledge, but as to the practical importance of the humanities to one actively engaged in the world's work. While it may be admitted that a public servant may perform the duties incumbent upon him without a knowledge of Greece and Rome, and with no very great familiarity with the institutions and problems of the ancient world, it is almost self-evident that the usefulness of a legislator, as distinguished from an administrator, would be enhanced by an adequate conception of the institutions of Greece and Rome as well as of the masterpieces of their political philosophy. Men change, governments rise and fall, nations pass out of existence, but the political relation of man to man, the problems of government, whereby individual liberty may be reconciled with the requirements of society, remain, and must be considered by each generation. The experience of the past, however remote, or of states, however small, cannot safely be overlooked by one who regards government and governmental theories as a development. Constitutions grow, they are not made; the Constitution of the United States was not created in the constitutional convention in 1787, but was the result of centuries of conflict and growth.

Again, it cannot be maintained for a moment that the artistic conceptions of Greece, and in a lesser degree of Rome, are of no advantage to the painter, the sculptor, the architect, and the critic. The mere statement amounts to a demonstration and we need only look about us to see the persistent, molding influence of Greece and Rome in all these departments of activity.

It may well be granted that the literature of the present day differs widely from the literature of the ancient world; that the conditions of the modern world demand a different treatment, and that various forms of literature have sprung into existence to meet the changed conditions. The standard of taste, how-

ever, has changed but little; the principles of composition are substantially the same; and it is not too much to assert that a masterpiece of modern literature would have commended itself to the critics of Greece and Rome just as the masterpieces of Greece and Rome not only commend themselves to the modern world but are models of thought and composition. It is not suggested that the *littérateur* of the present day must proceed along classical lines, and be minutely acquainted with the literature of antiquity, but it would seem to be beyond controversy that the average writer of the present day would have his thought refined, his taste purified, and his style chastened, by a thorough knowledge of the models and canons of the literary composition of Greece, and its imitator Rome. Genius is a law unto itself, and finds expression in any time and in any language; but the man of talent is strengthened by a knowledge of the past.

In the realm of philosophy the same is true. We cannot eliminate Greece, and in a much lesser degree Rome, if we would construct a system universally applicable. We cannot create a system without reference to the systems of the past which it has taken the past itself centuries to develop. These contentions may be readily admitted and yet it may be insisted that they apply to but limited classes; that they concern specialists in these various lines, and do not affect the overwhelming mass of our people engaged in the practical questions of the present day. However strong this objection may be, it is susceptible of an answer which amounts to refutation; for the study of these subjects, or of any of them, gives training and balance to the mind and we must perforce admit that the trained mind is essential to the proper conduct of affairs whether we be called upon to discuss problems of state, questions of literature, or canons of art and philosophy.

It is not asserted that training and balance may not be acquired by the study of the natural and physical sciences, or that an acquisition of modern languages will not supply linguistic training. It is maintained, however, that the study of classical literature, art, and philosophy supplies a training based upon models which have stood the test of time and which may therefore be considered universal; that the training derived from their study

is therefore correct training, and that we cannot, even if we would, omit these subjects in any curriculum which aims to fit a man for the problems with which he will be confronted in his daily life. It is not necessary to maintain the superiority of these studies; it is necessary, however, to assert their right to equality of treatment and that they be not discriminated against in our colleges and universities.

May I in conclusion illustrate and enforce the necessity at least of a comprehensive knowledge of Latin by calling to your attention the subject of international law, in which department I may perhaps speak as a specialist?

The student may, indeed, obtain a knowledge of international law as it exists at the present day from a careful reading of texts in English, supplemented by French and German treatises, but if he would trace international law to its beginnings and estimate rightly the force of public opinion, which not only controls our national policies but is shaping the international policies of the world, he must master the sources of international law; he must familiarize himself with the leading writers of international law who have in the past three centuries laid broad and deep the foundations of a stately structure, and he cannot do this without a thorough and practical knowledge of Latin. For not only did Grotius himself appeal to the public opinion in that language, with which public opinion was familiar, I mean Latin, but his predecessors and those who carried on the Grotian tradition and perfected the science of international law composed their treatises in Latin. The history of international law is a sealed book to one who is not a Latinist, and the ignorance of Latin argues at best but an acquaintance with secondary sources.

DISCUSSION

A PROBLEM FOR THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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The ten quotations (omitting the eighth) given in the *School Review* for February, 1909 (p. 126),¹ were placed before sixty-one normal-school seniors with the result that after making all due allowance the students showed a better knowledge of the meaning of the allusions than was shown by the high-school pupils. It is reasonable to expect that with increasing maturity there would be more control over material of this kind, and that this would be especially true of a class selected to become teachers. Does it not seem that the frequent statements made as to the ignorance of the Bible manifested by students are overdrawn? Is this not a legitimate field for the Religious Education Association to enter in order to give us some definite basis drawn from the testing of representative public and private institutions of high-school, normal, and college grade by means of which we can judge better the present status of knowledge (or ignorance), and so determine means of advance?

An analysis of the results of such a study would show the chief lines of weakness and strength in our present instruction. In the test referred to the following are indications of difficulties: Joshua's reasons for the miracle were seldom even hinted at. The penalty for Adam's sin was variously given as expulsion, manual labor, and death. The last two were sometimes assigned to him and again to future generations as well. The "cup" was occasionally referred to Gethsemane. One student mentioned *twelve* commandments, and another evidently considered Exodus a place. The "tree of life" was confused with the other tree. Christ was named as the one who gave the commandments to Moses. Herod was occasionally confused with Pharaoh. The greatest number of errors occurred in the attempt to place Esau. One spoke of "Esau selling his birthright with a kiss." Others said "Esau and Isaac were Jacob's sons," "Jacob summoned Esau to him and Esau put on a goatskin," "Esau's hand deceived him in getting the blessing away from his brother," "Esau's hand was hairy and Jacob suspected that he was being deceived, and Esau told him it was Joseph's coat."

Inexactness and lack of having given thought to the material seem to be the chief defects.

¹ Cf. also the *School Review* for December, 1908, p. 680.

EDITORIAL NOTES

It seems to be quite the fashion at the present time in certain circles to cry "college domination" of the lower schools. No educational gathering

*WHAT IS MEANT
BY COLLEGE
DOMINATION*

seems to be quite complete unless someone sounds the ominous note, and vigorous applause greets such self-styled champions of the cause of the oppressed. For the last few years since this shibboleth began to be so frequent, I have been much interested in studying speeches and writings containing it to discern just what is meant by the denunciation. I confess that I have failed to learn. This editorial is written in the hope that someone who knows of such domination will put these indictments into some concrete statements in order that the world may know of any existing tyranny.

It is true that secondary schools have modified their courses in order that their students might enter college. But the colleges ought scarcely to be blamed for this. The main stimulus to the marvelous growth of secondary schools has been the desire to go to college. Annihilate the colleges and the secondary schools would dwindle greatly for want of incentives. It is presumable that high-school authorities know better than college authorities what high-school boys wish to study, can study to advantage, and what a given community needs. Consequently the high schools impose certain quantitative and qualitative conditions for entrance to the high school. If this is regarded as unjust domination of the elementary schools by the high schools, I have yet to hear of it.

Is it not likewise reasonable to suppose that college authorities know better than anybody else the capacities and needs of college students? If so, ought they not to determine the curriculum for the college or technical school and also the prerequisites for entrance thereto? If high schools then shape their courses so that some ambitious boys and girls can prepare for college, should the colleges be branded as tyrannical? Most assuredly the colleges in making their own curricula should carefully study the actual accomplishments of the high schools and place the entrance requirements within reach of the average student, just the same as the high schools must adjust their work to that accomplished in the elementary school.

Because the elementary and high schools have the same general supervision the elementary school has been carefully studied and the adjustment has been reasonably made. Is it not also true that the colleges have made a very considerable attempt to adjust the work of the college to that of the secondary school? Witness this in the latitude allowed in the range of subjects which count for admission, the opportunity for election within this wide range of possibilities, and in the accredited system so largely in vogue and so rapidly spreading. At the present time, manual-training work, type-

writing, commercial subjects, drawing, music, shop-work, forging, and almost every conceivable subject may be offered as entrance subjects to practically all of the higher institutions. It is safe to say that as soon as any subject introduced in the high school can be shown to be well taught it will be accepted as a college-entrance subject.

I wonder if the full significance of the accredited system has been clearly seen by those who cry college domination? The accredited system

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ACCREDITED SYSTEM is intended to give entire latitude to high-school teachers in their methods of teaching. Within limits high-school teachers also have the sole determination of what parts of a subject shall be taken or emphasized. Under the accredited system a teacher may give his own examinations and be the sole judge of the fitness of the student to be passed from a subject. If a high-school pupil is passed in a subject the college gives full credit for whatever the teacher certifies.

I often wonder what high-school teachers would think if the colleges should all suddenly return to the examination system for entrance? I fancy that there would be a great outcry from the secondary schools against it. The objection would come not because of the fear that examinations could not be passed, but because of the narrowing and demoralizing influence of shaping all school work to the expected examinations. The perusal of educational magazines published but a few years ago, before the development of the accredited system, discloses the bitterness with which the examination system for college entrance was denounced. The attacks came from the lower schools mainly and not from the colleges. It was because of the dissatisfaction with the examination system displayed by the lower schools that the colleges inaugurated the accredited system to give a more natural and rational relation between the colleges and the secondary schools. The accredited system came from Germany. Its first development in this country was in Michigan. I am unable to trace the official steps taken for the establishment of the system in all of the different states, but for one state I have definite records showing that the movement first started in a schoolmasters' club, the public-school officials preparing a memorial to the state university asking that an accredited system and inspection be established. In the East it is certain that the colleges are the conservative ones in abolishing the examination system and substituting the accredited system. The secondary school officials have been the suppliants.

When a high school is placed upon the accredited list of the State University of Iowa the initiative is taken by the school authorities in all cases.

INITIATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL The University never seeks the privilege of inspecting and accrediting, but undertakes this function only upon invitation. It may be of interest to know that the number of requests on the waiting list is usually large. A considerable amount of direct inquiry and more observation leads me to firmly believe

that most communities and teachers eagerly seek such relation evidently believing it to their advantage. Any community is absolutely free to abandon the relations at any time, but to my knowledge no community, in this or any other state, has sought to have the relations dissolved.

To secure a place on the accredited list of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the initiative is also taken by the secondary school. No high school is obliged to continue on the list and at any time when it is deemed advantageous it may withdraw. There is absolutely no domination by this association in the way of requiring a certain kind of teachers, equipment, or instruction in any school in the country. Of course, if a school wishes to have the advantage which comes from being on the list, then the regulations of the association have to be complied with. But the relationship is purely voluntary on the part of the school. Those who are conversant with the affairs of the association know that the list of those desiring and asking a place is always large. Those who denounce the association as a trust are usually the ones who ask most loudly but fail to be admitted.

Some argue for systems of inspection and accrediting by the state departments of education through the state superintendents. Such a system would take away the local initiative and option and would make all schools conform to a certain standard or for failure deprive them of public money. Such a system becomes really dictatorial. Possibly such a plan might be desirable but its real nature should be seen by those who argue for it and denounce the present accrediting agencies which make for freedom.

As a public-school man in Wisconsin I believed thoroughly in the university accredited system, and as a college official and as a student of educational administration I regard it as contributing wonderfully to freedom in teaching and learning and as most beneficial and uplifting in its effects upon the public schools.

F. E. B.

BOOK REVIEWS

Moral Instruction and Training in Schools. Report of an International Inquiry. Edited by M. E. SADLER. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1908. Vol. I, pp. lviii+ 538; Vol. II, pp. xxvii+378. \$3.00.

These two volumes present the most notable contribution yet made to the subject in the way of information as to what is actually being done. A large and widely representative committee with Professor Sadler as secretary prepared a very comprehensive list of topics and with this as guide secured three kinds of material: (1) Extended papers on some specific aspect of moral education in the United Kingdom, such as moral training in the public schools, in girls' secondary schools, in coeducational schools, in the Catholic schools, etc.; (2) Brief statements from a great number of teachers in response to inquiries on such points as the ethical value of manual training, the desirability of direct moral or religious instruction, the special difficulties due to the home life of the pupils, etc.; (3) Reports by investigators upon moral training and instruction in the leading countries outside Great Britain. In addition to the material of these three sorts there are a number of brief papers on general aspects under the topic "The Roots of the Problem," and an Introduction by Professor Sadler giving a digest and interpretation of the more important results of the inquiry. Finally a well-selected bibliography will aid the student in following up the various lines of inquiry suggested.

Professor Sadler's Introduction, as might be expected, offers a broad-minded survey of the field. The new problems set for the schools by the transitional character of the times are pointed out. In spite of radical differences of opinion as to the interrelation of moral training and religious teaching, "our evidence shows that in every country there is an ideal of personal and civic obligation which may be taken as a basis for school teaching by adherents of almost any school of thought." If freedom is given the teacher, "within the limits imposed by consideration for others and by a sense of right reserve," to refer to divers sanctions, substantial unity of moral effort is more likely to be secured than by statutory limitations. The three most important factors in moral training are, in order, the personality of the teacher, the corporate life of the school, and the curriculum.

Of the preliminary essays on "The Roots of the Problem" it is not necessary to speak in detail. Their brevity prevents an exhaustive treatment of their several problems but there are many noteworthy suggestions.

The chief value of the volumes lies rather in the material brought out by the inquiry, and of all the papers perhaps the most interesting to those in the United States who are interested in secondary education is that by Mr. H. Bompas Smith, Headmaster of King Edward VII School, Lytham, on "Methods of Moral Instruction and Training in English Public Schools and Other Secondary Schools for Boys." I believe it will come as a distinct surprise to most high-school principals in this country to read that not only the ninety-seven public schools with their 30,000 boys, but the large majority of 550

"grammar schools" (other than the public schools) attended by nearly 75,000 boys have a corporate life built up in general along the lines developed by Arnold at Rugby. And even in the municipal and county schools which number about 150 and educate about 25,000 boys, "the more efficient have evolved a strenuous form of corporate life, though the individualistic point of view tends here to be predominant." An admirable account with a candid recognition of both the values and the defects of this "indirect" social mode of setting standards and securing conduct through group influence—as opposed to the direct personal influence of the teacher—is given. The day schools as well as the boarding-schools utilize its main features. "There are differences of opinion as to some of the details of the system, but it is inconceivable that it should be abandoned" (Vol. I, p. 110). With the exception of the private or endowed schools, secondary education in this country has almost wholly ignored this which English schoolmen largely regard as fundamental. Now that greater responsibilities for moral training are being imposed on the schools, will it not be wise to experiment with this under such modifications as our American life requires?

The material of the second type, namely, brief statements on a variety of questions, can scarcely be characterized as a whole or summarized. It represents a wide range of experience and no thoughtful reader will fail to find much to provoke reflection in the variety of comments and suggestions. Of the series of reports upon moral instruction and training in other countries than Great Britain, France is given special attention because of the experiments undertaken there in moral and civic instruction upon a non-religious basis. The paper upon moral instruction in Japan is also highly interesting. Baron Kikuchi, the author, thinks "that by this organized moral teaching we have prevented a great melting-away of principle; we were drifting and seemed to be loosened from all solid ground of morality."

On the question as to the advisability of direct moral instruction the Committee concludes that in all public elementary schools at least one lesson a week should be devoted to instruction in the principles of personal, social, and civic duty, as illustrated by examples from religious and other literature. As to the advisability of courses on ethical problems for secondary schools, there is difference of opinion, but the importance of a careful study of these subjects as a part of the training of teachers "the Committee regards as one of the clearest conclusions that may be drawn from their inquiry."

These volumes should mark an important step forward in the movement for moral education.

J. H. T.

Educational Issues in the Kindergarten. "International Education Series."

By SUSAN E. BLOW. New York: Appleton & Co., 1908. Pp. 386.

From one standpoint works on education fall into three classes: (1) the largely practical, devoted to methods or even devices; (2) the rapidly increasing class in which the theoretical aspects of a particular subject or division of the school are treated with considerable reference to practical matters; (3) works which aim to place education as a whole or some phase of it in its setting in the larger field of thought or philosophy in general. When a writer in the last group has kept in relation with both philosophy and practical school issues the

resulting writing is of value to readers of all sects of philosophy and teaching. Miss Blow has made many contributions to the American school and its literature. Her new book is in many ways her most effective writing—it is packed with the results of a long life of active thought and work.

Her position in the American kindergarten movement is unique. In no other section of the school does any single person carry so much weight with those who are in agreement or receive so much respect and consideration from dissenters. Her intimate association with Dr. Harris has had its influence but the concentration of a strong personality upon a movement, offering the peculiar conditions that have characterized the kindergarten, has brought about a state of affairs which furnishes material for interesting studies of the possible results and tendencies of the same influences in situations less easily gotten at.

Secondary education in America has had little direct aid from philosophical systems in finding itself; we have taken in that field the second-hand results of the struggles of mediaeval, renaissance, and reformation thinkers and there is need that its problems be reconsidered in the light of twentieth-century thinking. Miss Vandewalker, who wrote the *Kindergarten in America*, is at work upon a review of the kindergarten in its philosophical implications. This book will supplement what Miss Blow has written. With the present scarcity of material these works offer the best studies we have in the direction mentioned and in no other recent work can one see what we are doing so clearly stated in its indebtedness to the "philosophic world-view"—naturalism, pragmatism, and idealism. The free-play kindergarten is discussed as a representative of the first school; the industrial programme represents pragmatism; and the orthodox kindergarten rests upon idealism. The fourth school, that of the concentric programme has its philosophical antecedents in Herbart's world-view.

The creed of Froebel is shown to contain "four reciprocally dependent articles. The first is that man is a self-creative being; the second, that in virtue of this fact education shall encourage self-expression; the third, that encouragement shall be given only to those modes of self-expression which are related to the values of human life; the fourth, that all great human values are revelations of the aboriginal self-determining energy which achieves its own ideal form in self-consciousness. This final article does not deny the influence of man's biologic and historic heredity, nor does it deny the influence of either his physical or his social environment. It does, however, insist both upon the priority and the primacy of self-determination.

The creators of the concentric programmes either reject or ignore all these articles of the Froebelian creed. The creators of free-play programmes accept the first and second but either reject or ignore the third and fourth. The creators of industrial programmes accept the first three, but deny or ignore the fourth, and thereby are betrayed into practical methods which violate the articles they theoretically affirm."

This is not the place to attempt a detailed evaluation of Miss Blow's criticisms. The creed form in which she states her position (or rather Froebel's position as interpreted by her) is significant as is also the way in which she measures up the rest of mankind according to the articles they accept, reject, or ignore. To a writer of her views the naturalistic movement is a return to the evils of Brahminism, while pragmatism marks an advance over that in that

it reinstates Zoroastrianism. President Hall is anathema, Professor James is relatively less objectionable (relativity while it can have no place in her creed serves practical ends occasionally with her), Professor Schiller is still better—then comes the final section in which the true gospel is stated “The philosophy of absolute idealism.” “The final justification of the traditional kindergarten is impossible unless the idealistic philosophy be the most adequate statement of truth thus far achieved by human reason.” All will agree with Miss Blow in this statement, but this “adequate statement” will, I fear, require faith rather than understanding on the part of kindergartners and other teachers. The author flings aside the limitations which she has imposed upon herself during the preceding three hundred and seventy pages and gives full rein to her Hegelian vocabulary. The doctrine of the trinity is a central requirement and is demonstrated in truly scholastic fashion. The “processio” controversy that split national churches in the past is shown to be the root of our present difficulties. Christian theology is fully justified. (If I remember rightly earlier in the work Roman Catholic theology receives considerable commendation—it is unfortunate that the work has no index for reference.)

On the educational side the general effort of the book ought to be helpful. There is no doubt a desire to be fair in statement but it is unfortunate that uninformed readers should receive the impression that Dr. Dewey's educational work was lost in industrialism, that Dr. Dopp's works are for the kindergarten, when she so definitely recognizes the great difference in children's interests during the 4 to 6 period from those of the next period for which she has written. The discussion of the latter's position on work, play, and art, like Miss Blow's criticism of Miss Hill, cannot be maintained when the full context of what was written is taken into account.

Wherever we turn this tendency of any educational situation, however small, to polarize toward idealism and realism, transcendentalism and materialism, rationalism and empiricism, or more profitably for analysis, toward humanism and naturalism, is evident. Pragmatism offers to many minds a “solution” (an interesting anomaly); to others it is a step backward. The philosophy of education to which it is contributing is evidently needed when, as here, even on the old alphabetic basis language, form, and number are accepted, but industry is counted as coming from below and not as an “archetypal form . . . gently to lead little neophytes of thought out of the realm of nature's effects into the realm of her causative processes.” The author would have no trouble in seeing in the “Flower in the crannied wall” a symbol of all that is but she is frankly “puzzled” that the evolution of flax, cotton, and wool fibers into clothing can serve a similar purpose. One wonders which is the greatest dualist, after all, Miss Blow or those whom she criticizes?

F. A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICH.

The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. By EDMUND BURKE HUEY. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 469. \$1.40.

When one stops to consider the habit which civilized people have of spending so many hours every day in scanning the printed pages of books, magazines, and

papers, it is a rather remarkable procedure. As Professor Huey states in his recent book, which is the subject of this review, "To the early peoples, reading was one of the most mysterious of the arts, both in its performance and in its origin. We recall how, even in modern times, Livingstone excited the wonder and awe of an African tribe as he daily perused a book that had survived the vicissitudes of travel. So incomprehensible, to these savages, was his performance with the book, that they finally stole it and ate it, as the best way they knew of 'reading' it, of getting the white man's satisfaction from it." The process is at best a somewhat artificial one, both in its acquirement and practice. The eye is not particularly adapted for such use, and methods of printing have not been devised with much direct reference as to what was best for the reader, but chiefly with a view to what was most convenient and economical for the printer. Any knowledge which makes for improvement, however slight, in our habits and methods of reading, which increases mental economy and lessens fatigue, is naturally welcomed. The important series of experiments which have been made by many investigators on the psychology and physiology of reading have had these ends in view.

The book of Professor Huey is the first to present for the general reader a detailed review and summary of these experiments, especially of those which have been made in the last decade, and to bring their results to bear in a thoroughgoing study of the psychology and pedagogy of reading. In addition to chapters upon each of these subjects, which appear in the first and third parts of the book, the second part is given over to an interesting account of the history of reading and reading-methods, and in the fourth part, and the concluding chapter, the important subjects of fatigue and hygienic requirements in the matters of print, and finally, possible improvements in these respects are discussed. The presentation of experimental work is accurate and discriminating, and is particularly valuable, because these results published in the various scientific periodicals and journals have hitherto been largely inaccessible to the general reader.

The most important experiments in reading have followed three general lines: first, the studies of Cattell, Zeitler, Mesmer, and others with the tachistoscope or short-exposure apparatus to determine the nature of the perceptual processes in reading and the extent of reading-matter, which can be seen in a momentary glance. The results of these experiments have already found application in current methods of teaching reading. The teaching of words rather than letters finds its justification in that the eye can at one time grasp words, or short phrases as easily and quickly as the same number of isolated letters, and in that the general configuration of words can be learned as wholes as easily as the single letters by themselves.

The second line of experiments of Huey, Erdmann and Dodge, and others has been directed to determining the actual characteristics of the movements and pauses of the eye in reading. As is perhaps now generally known, the reading of a line of print is accomplished by several pauses of the eye at various places in the line—from three to twelve or more of them, depending on the length of line and the individual—and very rapid movements between these pauses. Perception or reading proper occurs only during the pauses, there being no vision, such at least as is sufficient for significant perception, during the rapid

movements. The number of such pauses varies with individuals, and depends undoubtedly in part on the methods of learning employed in the acquirement of these habits. The results of these latter experiments have not as yet been applied to any extent to the teaching of reading; but they promise even more fruitful applications than the earlier experiments. These earlier experiments have indicated how extensive the grasp of reading-matter at any one glance *may* be under favorable conditions; the more recent experiments show what is the actual span and method of reading and how these vary with individuals. Of adult persons of equal ability and practice in reading some read by syllables only, others can within the single glance of the fixation-pause take in the longest words. Some of these differences are matters of nature others may be subject to the effects of training and practice. The application of these facts to the teaching of reading must follow with further experimentation.

Experimental work has, in the third place, dealt with the general hygienic requirements of reading. The best ways of decreasing fatigue, avoiding the disastrous effects which appear in the defects of vision, and the promotion of economy and efficiency in reading are reviewed and discussed in the appropriate chapters.

The book is well and interestingly written, and may be heartily recommended to those interested in the teaching of reading, as well as to the general reader who may be interested in a study of an occupation in which he spends so much of his time.

WALTER F. DEARBORN

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Heyse's Er soll dein Herr sein. Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by MARTIN H. HAERTEL. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 106. \$0.30.

The scene of this short story is laid in a small Bavarian garrison not far from Munich and the time is that of the Franco-Prussian war. Heyse succeeds wonderfully in giving us the true atmosphere of the time, when all other feelings had to give way to patriotism. The characters are life-like and interesting, there is a good deal of action and the style is beautiful. The story, however, will not prove to be easy reading and should from its very nature be reserved for college students. There are exercises for translation from English into German following the text, which will be of advantage to more advanced students.

A. T. GRONOW

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea. Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by WATERMAN T. HEWETT. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 325. \$0.60.

The *Hermann und Dorothea* of Goethe has been for many years a favorite text with the editors of German Classics. Dr. Hewett's edition contains an introduction, a bibliography, notes, and a vocabulary.

The introduction deals with the sources of the poem, as the exiles from

Salzburg, the campaign in France, Goethe's personal experiences in connection with this and the contemporary history as related to the poem. It treats in a very interesting manner the composition of the poem, shows the influence of Voss' *Luise* over Goethe and discusses the relation of *Hermann und Dorothea* to idyllic and epic poetry. The final chapter of the introduction treats the metrical form. The bibliography is thorough and quite extensive. The notes are more of a literary than of a grammatical nature; they will be sure to stimulate the thoughts of the pupil. The vocabulary has received special attention. According to the author a vocabulary should be more than a mere translation of words; it should develop in the student the power to discriminate delicate shades of meaning—in short give linguistic training. I believe that *Hermann und Dorothea* should not be read in high schools, but only in colleges, and I am sure that for the college student Dr. Hewett's edition will prove to be of great value and interest.

A. T. GRONOW

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Jacquette, A Sorority Girl. By GRACE ETHELWYN CODY. New York: Duffield & Co., 1908. Pp. 300.

A tale with a purpose and worked out on the whole in a fair spirit. The secondary-school authorities are feeling the pressure of the secret-society question and there is by no means agreement among them as to the best methods of meeting it. The beginning of the story is handled somewhat awkwardly—the author is not entirely happy in the devices used to introduce the heroine and especially in bringing up the needed material from the past but the style is easier as the chapters go on and attention is well held. It is not, however, a significant book except in its attempt to bring to view a real problem. The details in this particular case may or may not be well chosen but the difficulties of social life in a democratic institution are serious. There is an increasing appreciation of the necessity of meeting social needs, and the means used in some schools are very highly developed even including in one case a specialist akin to the social secretary of a commercial concern. The fraternity and sorority development of the college gives reason for careful thought alike to those who favor it as to those who are opposed but when these conditions are transferred to the high school the matter becomes more complicated.

On the one hand there are the real society needs of these young people; the advantages of opportunities for some form of government in which responsibility comes directly upon them, secured in an English boarding-school by the prefect and fag systems; the natural tendency to form segregated and to some extent opposing groups, confirmed by our sectarian and partisan habits; the advantages in later life of desirable associations formed in youth; the distinction of participating in secret rites assumed at least to be only for members of the superior class; the satisfaction of participation in the selection and confirmation of younger persons for this distinction. In social life as in thought and emotion there is a distinct gain arising from a selection of special material and a temporary segregation of it in order that it may gain fitness and intensity to meet some special need.

On the other hand trouble arises when this special development comes to see itself as a group permanently set aside—superior to the home, the school, society as a whole in its claims upon the time, energy, loyalty of its members. When this segregation has the sanction of secrecy and like the old religious groups of which it is in part a survival attaches a stigma to withdrawal and to independent action the group becomes a faction, and congestion rather than circulation may be the result.

In all time the developments of one period carry over into new ages serving at once to conserve and to limit as well as to suggest and irritate. This book does not show how a machine of aristocracy is to be transformed into an engine of democracy but it may help some teachers, parents, and even pupils to see the problem in larger outlines.

The Management of a City School. By ARTHUR C. PERRY, JR., PH.D. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 350. Price, \$1.25 net.

A better title for this book would be "The Principal of a City Elementary School," for the problem is looked at from the standpoint of the principal throughout—management means the control by the principal—and no attention is given to secondary schools. The student will find excellent material in it in meeting his problems and even the experienced principal or superintendent will value the organization of suggestions.

There are chapters on "The Principal" and (1) "The State;" (2) "The Public;" (3) "The Authorities;" (4) "The Teachers;" (5) "The Pupils;" (a) material equipment, (b) physical welfare, (c) scholastic progress, (d) moral development; (6) "The Principalship." Sample letters for various purposes are given, also citations from the rules of many city schools. These are so frequent and this aspect is so much to the front that the work seems to lean too much to the legal side although there is constant effort to give attention to the moral and reconstructive aspect. The appendix contains questions on "School Management" as given in the examinations of half a dozen leading cities.

The book seems to show Mr. Chancellor's influence to some extent in style and method, but is not equal to his best work. The chapter on "Moral Development" shows much thought. Many teachers will be helped by the brief "philosophy of discipline," even though they may not agree with it. The crucial chapter is the one on "The Principal and the Teachers." One feels the need of re-reading some such work as Mrs. Young's *Isolation in the School* after studying this chapter, for while we are sure that a school conducted on Dr. Perry's principles would be a good one, it is well to have in mind that there are attempts at more democratic organization than it suggests.

FRANK A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICH.

Methodik des Unterrichts in der deutschen Sprache. Von ADOLF SCHULTZ. Leipzig und Berlin: Teubner, 1906. Pp. 245.

The method of teaching the native tongue in German classes, corresponding to the higher grade of the grammar school and the high school in America, is

very instructively discussed. American teachers would do well to keep in touch with German experience and method through the reading of books like this.

Streifzüge durch die Welt der Grossstadtkinder. Lebensbilder Gedankengänge für den Anschauungsunterricht in Stadtschulen, von F. GANSBERG. Zweite Auflage mit Buchschmuck von C. WINDELS. Leipzig und Berlin: Teubner, 1907.

The subject of this book is the child's out-of-door life in a big city. It intends to give the public-school teacher in Germany an outline and an inspiration for his teaching object-lessons. The American teacher could draw from it material for his German conversation classes.

Die beiden Freunde. Eine Erzählung von GENERAL-FELDMARSCHALL GRAF HELMUTH VON MOLTKE. Edited by K. D. JESSEN. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907.

Among the best German prose-writers of modern times are to be found the two men who were instrumental in building up the German Empire—Bismarck and Moltke. Here we have a delightful little story told by Moltke. It is to be hoped that Bismarck's classical prose will also be represented in an American textbook, before very long. Moltke's *Die beiden Freunde* can be read in third-year high-school German.

Erstes Sprach- und Lesebuch. A German Primer by LEWIS ADDISON RHOADES AND LYDIA SCHNEIDER. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. Pp. 107.

This book is intended for pupils in the third and fourth grades. Many public and private grammar schools now include German in their schedules. They will be glad to have such a practical and well-arranged textbook for their purposes.

A. C. VON NOÉ

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Selected Poems of Shelley. "Riverside Literature Series." Edited by GEORGE HERBERT CLARKE. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. lxxix+266.

Few classics in English literature have escaped the editorial microscope. Shakespeare and Browning may need editing—certainly they get enough of it; Milton and Tennyson have been edited almost beyond recognition; and even Holmes and Whittier have not eluded the omnipresent editor. To all this editing, and much of it is indisputably necessary, one objection is almost everywhere apparent: the pupil for whom the classic is annotated is not always considered. Few texts, indeed, are edited for pupils in definite grades of school work. There is, to be sure, some reason for this discrepancy: all classics are not read in the same year, or within the same two years, in all schools. *Silas Marner*, for example, is read from the seventh or eighth grade to the twelfth grade, and even in the first year of college work. To edit such a classic for these various

grades must require some keen and sensitive discrimination. Doubtless this condition is recognized both by the publishers and the editor, so the text comes forth wearing an enticing look to beguile all classes of pupils. From this condition of affairs arises the desire to over-edit many classics. No point, allusion, quotation, cross-reference, parallelism, literary anecdote, structure, form, or what-not is left in peace: they are all explained to a mere fizzle. Nothing escapes.

The foregoing remarks have been called forth by the book entitled *Selected Poems by Percy Bysshe Shelley*, edited by Professor George Herbert Clarke. We hasten to add that Professor Clarke's errors as an editor do not consist in ineptitude, lack of information, scholarship, or sympathy, but in an overdose of editorial mania. That he is a true Shelleyan the opening paragraph of his introduction is abundant evidence:

"Every life is a symbol as well as a history, a symbol, perhaps it were truer to say, because it is a history. The course of his life moved from the tense yet dark mood of Paracelsus, exultant in denial and challenge, to the high affirmations of April—

'the over-radiant star too mad
To drink the life springs.'

Had he lived, it is hardly possible that he would have failed to become at last
'a third

And better-tempered spirit, warned by both.'"

This is all very well, very true, very recondite, and very suggestive, but what in the name of the pedagogical saints is a pupil to do with it? Does it open the storehouse of Shelley's poetry to the youthful mind? Does it serve even as a corridor to the more advanced college student? Certainly such a paragraph will befuddle the beginning reader of Shelley's poetry. Shelley himself would have sneaked off into a corner at such a mystical introduction. Our quotation is not to be used as a gauge for the entire book, nor even for the introduction, yet it seems to show that Professor Clarke's temperament, as well as his language, style, and tone, is much better suited to college students than it is to secondary pupils. Were our view-point the view-point of scholarship—enthusiasm for and sympathy with the author—we could pass many words of commendation on this book. Our view, however, is confined and restricted to the use of the book in high schools. To that purpose it is not adapted.

H. E. COBLENTZ

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
MILWAUKEE, WIS.

Folk Dances and Games. By CAROLINE CRAWFORD. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1908. Pp. 82. \$1.50.

On looking at the picture by Elsley, in the front of Caroline Crawford's book, *Folk Dances and Games*, it seemed to me I could fairly feel the different degrees of interest and importance each child felt in the tossing of that handkerchief.

Do you remember the keen feeling of uncontrollable lonesomeness which

swept over you when not chosen during a whole game? Or the unexpected thrill of delight in looking behind you to find a handkerchief had really been dropped at your feet? Men and women today who are influencing the educational world recognize the necessity of every child having some form of play, either dancing, sport, or games, brought into its life under the right influence and condition. It is a pleasure to find a book like Miss Crawford's where the author dares to state the dances clearly, with the correct music, and the dances not altered, magnified, or moderated by American influences.

Far too many books are written on this subject by Americans in America, who have not traveled but learn their dances from foreigners in this country of the uneducated class, and many times these foreigners do not come from the part of the country where the dance belongs. By so doing the historic value of the dance is lost—the local and geographical influence, and the real meaning contained in the actions.

"The Meaning of the Dance," as Miss Crawford entitles her preface, holds several good ideas, and is well worth reading carefully. One rejoices at the consecutive index, which takes one from the dances of the north, Finland, Sweden, and Scotland, to the dances of middle Europe, England, Germany, and France, and brings one at the close to Bohemia, where we know the first influence of the south is felt.

We hope she may include in her next book the fascinating dances of Spain, Italy, and Greece. However, these dances seem to be less practical for the present generation.

Among the seven dances from Finland the Harvest dance is almost absolutely accurate, and is a dance any school can use with great advantage; especially if the children make the rakes and sickles in their manual-training classes.

The eleven Swedish dances, all well given, are accurate; "Fox and Geese" is especially well described. It is a remarkably good game for either boys or girls, out of doors or in the gymnasium.

"Gustav Skal" is good, but not as accurately described as "Klapp Dans," which can be used with large groups of young children.

The five Scotch dances are well sketched, and the five English dances can be worked out easily by anyone following Miss Crawford's directions.

Of the four German dances, the French dance, and the six Bohemian dances, the French dance would give the greatest satisfaction to those handling a large number of children; it is simple, rhythmical, and active.

The simple dances, using many children, are what the schools need today, and Miss Crawford's book contains a good combination of simple, complex, single, and group dances.

Miss Crawford deserves the warm thanks of all those interested in the educational side of games and dances.

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BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

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ENGLISH

- The Changing Values of English Speech.* By RALCY HUSTED BELL. New York: Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, 1909. Pp. 302. \$1.25.
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- Recitations for Assembly and Classroom.* With Suggested Programmes. Compiled and arranged by ANNA T. LEE O'NEILL. New York: Macmillan, 1909. Pp. 454. \$1.10.
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CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

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- WILLIAM ORR, The point of view of the preparatory school, 551-61;
- ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN, The college point of view, 561-67; WILSON FARRAND, The reasonable solution, 567-16.
- AYRES, LEONARD P. The effect of physical defects on school progress. *Psycholog. Clinic.* 3:71-78. (15 My. '09.)
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- CARTER, MARION HAMILTON. The conservation of the defective child. *McClures Mag.* 33:160-72. (June '09.)
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¹ Abbreviations.—*Amer. Educa.*, American Education; *Atlan.*, Atlantic Monthly; *Educa.*, Education; *Harp. W.*, Harpers Weekly; *Ind. Educa.*, Indian Education; *Journ. of Educa.*, Journal of Education; *Lib. Journ.*, Library Journal; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psycholog. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *Sch. World*, School World; *Tech. World Mag.*, Technical World Magazine.

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